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# THE DYNAMICS OF CHANGE IN TEACHER EDUCATION

## Volume I: Background Papers from the National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education

Thomas J. Lasley, Editor

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# The Dynamics of Change In Teacher Education

## Volume I: Background Papers from the National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education

Thomas J. Lasley
Editor

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Thomas J. Lasley
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ABSTRACT

The themes of teacher autonomy, practical experience, and program rigor are manifest explicitly and implicitly throughout these papers prepared for the National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education. Both the problems and resolution approaches presented under each theme suggest what can and must occur in teacher education to enhance the professional status of teachers. The commission papers in this volume are: (1) "The Schools and Preservice Education: Expectations and Reasonable Solutions" (Gene E. Hall, Walter Doyle, James V. Hoffman); (2) "Recruitment, Selection, Retention and Graduation of Teacher Education Students" (Henrietta Schwartz); (3) "Teacher Education: An All-University Responsibility" (Linda B. Jones); (4) "Restructuring Teacher Education: The University of New Hampshire's Five-Year Program" (Michael C. Andrew); (5) "The University of Kansas Extended Teacher Education Program" (Dale Scannell); (6) "Teacher Education Reform in Tennessee" (Robert T. Saunders); (7) "The Florida Beginning Teacher Program" (David C. Smith, Garfield W. Wilson); (8) "Crossing the Bridges: The First Years of Teaching" (Gary A. Griffin); (9) "The Next Generation of Teacher Preparation Programs" (Kenneth R. Howey); and (10) "Guiding Images for Teaching and Teacher Education" (Hendrik D. Gideonse). (JD)

# Overview

# The Themes of Reform

Thomas J. Lasley and Joseph F. Rogus
*University of Dayton*

Educating a profession is not an easy task. In many cases the public's expectations for new teacher performance are unrealistic; hence, the demands on teacher educators and teachers exceed what is possible and probable, particularly in light of current levels of state and local support. As Denemark (1985) notes: "[T]he public wants an intellectual giant, a paragon of virtue, a totally dedicated professional with missionary instincts and Messianic zeal, all for less than $13,000 a year" (p. 47).

The deterrents to professionalism in teacher education are many and varied. Weak admission standards for teaching candidates, inadequate physical plant and financial resources to support program delivery, low entrance salaries, and excess regulation of teacher performance are but a few of the problems. What can be done to ameliorate such problems remains in question, especially given federal and state inclinations toward budget reduction.

Clearly, solutions to some problems facing the profession are outside the control of teacher educators. As much as university education faculty may decry a $13,000 salary for beginning teachers, they can do little to make school boards pay more. And although state regulations may at times place limits on the exercise of academic freedom, teacher educators have had and will likely continue to have little influence on policymakers toward reducing legal mandates vis-a-vis teacher preparation. In essence, the fact that teachers and teacher educators have limited control over the educational milieu is a reality peculiar to a public profession.

On the other hand, other major problems confronting the profession are quite addressable. This chapter provides documentation for several such problems identified under three themes manifest explicitly and

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implicitly throughout the papers prepared for the National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education. The themes, teacher autonomy, practical experience, and program rigor, were selected for their salience. Both the problems and resolution approaches presented under each theme suggest, at least in part, what can and must occur in teacher education if enhanced professional status for teachers is to become reality.

## TEACHER AUTONOMY

Judge (1982) observed that "teachers in the United States have long ... been severely limited in the exercise of anything that might be considered professional autonomy" (p. 46). Ravitch (1983) expressed a similar concern, concluding that "with so many laws and regulations and interest groups on the scene, wise teachers look for protection in the rulebook, their union, their lawyer, or to some job with more dignity" (p. 28). (See Denemark, 1985, for an expanded discussion of the Judge and Ravitch points.)

In *A Call for Change in Teacher Education* (1985), the authors highlight the effects of limited teacher autonomy:

> Teachers have limited autonomy and decision-making authority to produce the kinds of services that students need. Beyond the absence of rights to make the decisions they are most qualified to make, teachers also do not have telephones, offices, or direct secretarial assistance ... they are often expected to collect lunch money, monitor halls, and plan pep rallies—circumstances that waste the teacher's value and deter attracting and maintaining quality teachers. (p. 27)

The Commission members assert the need for state and local boards (and others responsible for education) to examine closely the circumstances in which teachers work and, in so doing, to employ as standards for judgment those criteria used in professions requiring similar education and expertise of their memberships. Commission members further urge greater involvement of teachers in the decision-making process, particularly at the building level.

In spite of common assertions on the need for increased teacher autonomy, the questions can be legitimately asked: Is increased teacher autonomy desirable? And if so, is such autonomy possible? The answer to both questions is a qualified "Yes."

While college professors agree with the observations of the Commission that teachers ought to have increased autonomy in instructional matters, teachers themselves experience considerable ambivalence with respect to the issue. Lortie (1975) describes the modal teacher in the following manner:

> He yearns for more independence, greater resources, and just possibly, more control over key resources. But he accepts the hegemony of the school

> system on which he is economically and functionally dependent. . . . He is poised between the impulse to control his work life and the necessity to control its vagaries; perhaps he holds back partly because he is at heart uncertain that he can produce predictable results. (p. 186)

In essence, teachers in practice want the most autonomy they can get while still receiving the help they need. Ironically, persons who remain in teaching appear to have less need for autonomy than those who leave (Chapman and Hutcheson, 1982). Those who remain in teaching assign more importance to the recognition of peers and supervisors than they do to the opportunity to have autonomy and to be involved in the decision-making processes of the school. Such findings, which reflect the socializing power of the school culture, are compelling. Indeed, they raise the possibility that if teacher educators were to be increasingly effective in fostering enhanced critical thought on the part of prospective teachers, then those same teachers would become increasingly dissatisfied with school life and be more likely to leave the profession than their counterparts who have learned "to go along." If true, teaching might conceivably become a "come-and-go" profession as advocated by Wimpelberg and King (1983), where teachers teach for awhile before moving on to their "real" professions. A frightening thought!

Creating increased autonomy for teachers in the classroom may be impossible without first providing for their involvement at the policy level, through, for example, increased participation on state-wide certification boards. Several reform advocates and national organizations have called for such participation, and with the recent legislative decisions in California, Oregon, and Minnesota, it is apparent that states are giving serious consideration to providing teachers with a greater voice in setting criteria and establishing standards for teacher certification. Such moves will not ensure teacher autonomy at the school level, but they will create conditions at a broader, structural level for helping teachers believe that they can and should participate in setting a direction for practice. A "trickle-down" process is possible: As teachers are given more input on policy matters, they may well become more assertive in their decision making at the school and classroom levels.

## PRACTICAL EXPERIENCE

The notion of providing prospective teachers with more field experiences is not new. Over the past several decades there have been numerous polemics in which authors argue that teachers best learn to teach by teaching. The pedagogues of the mid-nineteenth century advocated more field and laboratory work. One hundred years later, in the mid-twentieth century, Conant suggested that methods courses should be reduced, especially for elementary teachers, and that "laboratory" experiences in the classroom be expanded. The calls for more practice teaching have been heeded. Legislatures in several states have made dramatic changes in field requirements for preservice teachers (see, for example, Robinson and Mosrie, 1979).

That many of the Commission papers allude to the need for increased field experiences is not surprising. However, the recommendations center around concern for the quality of field experiences, not just their quantity. Some, such as Howey (see Chapter 9), assert that collaboration between cooperating schools and teacher preparation program faculty is markedly absent from most programs. This lack of collaboration prevents prospective teachers from fully becoming students of the teaching process; it also results in limited dialogue among the key socializing agents concerning the appropriate role of reflection in teaching.

Dewey (1904) expressed concern that too much emphasis on practice would keep students from using salient pedagogical concepts to guide their teaching. Working from the posture that novices and veterans who function as professional teachers assiduously and continually judge their own work, he feared that prospective teachers would become technicians looking for a simple set of strategies rather than reflective practitioners who would carefully observe and analyze the teaching process.

The literature of the past decade provides evidence for the legitimacy of Dewey's concerns. Some research indicates that practice teaching and field experiences may be as detrimental as they are beneficial (Zeichner, 1978), and that because cooperating teachers (commonly unschooled to the value of reflection) are a powerful influence on prospective teachers' attitudes and behaviors (Copeland, 1979), many prospective teachers discontinue the use of the skills learned in the preservice curriculum and adopt, instead, the teaching postures of their cooperating teachers.

Building on these conclusions, Hall (Chapter 1), Howey (Chapter 9), and others describe the need to identify cooperating teachers who can build on and support the knowledge and skills taught in teacher education programs and who can help neophyte teachers become active agents of their own professional development. Several institutions are attempting to develop the partnerships necessary to ensure such program-to-field consistency (see Killian and McIntyre, 1985), primarily through the use of specialized training procedures for cooperating teachers. Regrettably, training procedures commonly oversimplify the nature of the cooperating teacher-student teacher relationship. Such programs are also frequently limited in scope and structure; they provide some grounding for practice but their conceptual integrity is suspect and their long-term benefits questionable. What other profession would consider training field or clinical supervisors in a three credit hour course? Still, "training" programs constitute an essential next step in the professional development process.

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Another program direction may be even more critical, however. Gideonse (Chapter 10) argues that teacher educators need a guiding image (he suggests the use of the teacher as decision maker metaphor) to engender efficacious conditions for professional practice. The point is a powerful one, although the real value may rest in a faculty's effort to select a single image (decision maker, applied scientist, moral craftsman) to guide practice and from which to establish specific programmatic goals. In essence, the specific form of the image may be secondary to the fact that faculty members develop a unified direction, that they know where their preparation practices lead, and that their students experience a sense of common purpose. Such teacher education is less eclectic and potentially more powerful. Field and clinical practice evolving from a common program image should provide better grounding for students beginning their professional careers.

## PROGRAM RIGOR

A third theme evidenced throughout the chapters in this volume, as well as throughout the current literature of teacher education, is the need for increased program rigor.

The theme again mirrors an emphasis evidenced in *A Call for Change in Teacher Education* (1985). In its charge to the profession, the Commission emphasizes several needs: (a) the need to hold teacher candidates to rigorous admission standards; (b) the need for teacher aspirants to demonstrate mastery of the subject(s) to be taught and the pedagogical foundations that underlie effective teaching; and (c) the need, prior to graduation, for candidates to demonstrate their knowledge and skill on measures of subject matter command; their knowledge and application of the foundations, science, and processes of teaching; and their ability to teach effectively (see p. 8 of the Commission's report).

The authors in this chapter implicitly accept the validity of the Commission's charge and focus attention on implementation concerns, particularly with respect to the second need. In some cases, the directions advocated by the various authors are expressed in oblique terms. Jones (in Chapter 3), for example, refers to the "renewed attention of the arts and sciences faculty to the public schools and growing interest in the university's responsibility as a whole for the education of teachers." In part, this is what Berliner (1985) referred to as reform trend A: "increased preparation in subject matter fields based on the belief that teachers do not have enough content knowledge to teach efficiently" (p. 2). By bringing about more extensive university-wide participation in teacher education, a euphemism in some cases for decreasing the amount of professional studies, many educators believe that preparation programs will have enhanced rigor and credibility. Quality teacher education, it seems, will or should entail limited pedagogical training. Unfortunately, reformers adhering to this position often disdain or ignore research showing that there is a weak relationship between the teacher's knowledge of content and student achievement (Evertson, Hawley, and Zlotnik, 1985).

One question is fundamental in the program rigor debate: Are real changes possible in a program area (teacher education) that has been so consistently resilient to change over the past half century? Smith and Wilson (Chapter 7) note that: "Evidence reveals that almost no major changes have occurred in the time allocated or content provided for preservice teacher education in the last 50 years." Assuming that the absence of change in teacher education is both a reality and a problem, what can or should be done? The answer is multifaceted. No single approach or policy will suffice. In a general sense, teacher education must become a central university function and program, not an auxiliary service. To accomplish this, three constraints on current teacher preparation programs must be addressed.

The first constraint is the relative absence of a common program structure for teacher education. Prospective teachers now take only 20 percent (secondary certification) to 40 percent (elementary certification) of their total undergraduate coursework in professional studies. For secondary students the preparation experience consists of four or five courses in such areas as educational psychology, educational philosophy, and human development. Egbert (1985) suggested that the only constants in and across secondary teacher education programs are a single methods course and some field (student teaching) experience. The professional studies component for elementary students is somewhat more extensive.

Some reformers would place the professional studies component at the end of the undergraduate curriculum—what Harry Judge referred to as the consecutive model in teacher training. They would argue, as does Berliner (1985), that an emergent knowledge base makes additional training experiences for teachers essential. They further suggest that rather than encroaching on undergraduate studies, the entire preparation component should be separated from general education studies.

Another approach parallels the one articulated by Jones: Teacher education programming becomes a synthesized curriculum with a broad-based faculty. As an all-university responsibility, the emphasis is on curricular integration, not conceptual segregation. Jones in Chapter 3 observes:

> First, there might be an attempt at consensus among professional teacher educators and arts and sciences faculty about the common body of skills and knowledge needed for success as a teacher. Faculties need to explore the relationship between and among general education, concentration in a field of study, and certain sequential courses in the social sciences which should be prerequisites to professional education courses. Once relationships are defined and responsibilities assigned, program review processes

should be structured to evaluate effectiveness, not just of sequential preparation, but of integration.

The promise of curricular integration is based on a premise of mutual respect between teacher educators and arts and sciences faculty—a premise that is questionable, at best. In many universities, faculty from the arts and sciences are leery about getting too physically close to the building wherein teacher education occurs, let alone talking to the teacher educators who work there.

The Holmes group reform proposal has great promise, but it is equally fraught with problems. Some now argue that the proposal will divide the profession and that implementation would give increased responsibility for teacher education to institutions that have more concern for publication and research than for preparing teachers. The notion of extended training (ignoring facts related to who will pay for it) is conceptually sound. Other fields have expanded their curricula by either sacrificing coursework in general studies and emphasizing professional training (engineering) or lengthening the time required to obtain a bachelor's degree and, concomitantly, moving professional training to the graduate level (law). Both models are being advocated for teacher education. The Andrew and Scannell chapters lean toward the former. The Holmes group proposal comes closer to the law model, as does the proposal of Joyce and Cliff (1984).

A basic problem with extended programming, and a second constraint vis-a-vis the conduct of teacher preparation, is the underfunding of teacher education (see Peseau and Orr, 1980). Egbert (1985) notes:

> Teacher education is usually viewed as a low-cost program. For example, teacher education traditionally has not required a large equipment outlay like engineering, nor has it demanded an extensive separate curriculum, nor has it insisted on the detailed studies and laboratory work of architecture or the clinical supervision of social work. (p. 16)

This low cost makes teacher education attractive to university administrators. For a limited amount of money, universities have been able to offer programs within which, for the past few years at least, they could matriculate students who are too academically weak to succeed in other academic areas.

The underfunding is well documented. Kerr (1983) describes as illustrative the use of the Texas Formula by higher education institutions, a "complexity index" used to determine funding allocations for academic units. Though data cited by Kerr and developed by Peseau and Orr (1980) are now a bit dated (1977–78), they are indicative of a funding crisis in teacher education that militates against effective professional practice. The data indicate that more money is spent in one year to educate a public school student than is spent on the total education of a prospective teacher.

Kerr concludes:

> Without a substantially higher allocation index, pedagogical faculties cannot possibly develop the complex and sophisticated clinical studies that teacher education sorely lacks; without highly developed and demonstrably successful clinical programs in place, universities would most likely be unwilling to adjust the index. (p. 136)

The last phrase is particularly important. Indeed a third constraint to program rigor may well be the intransigence of current education faculty. Among many, there is a desire to maintain the status quo, to keep things as they are—even if extant programs are less than effective. The reason for this is understandable: Teacher education is not a time-efficient enterprise. Teaching students something as simple as "wait time" takes time. Rowe (1986) describes the lengthy process required to change teacher behavior so that a prospective teacher pauses consistently after asking a question (wait time #1) and after a student response (wait time #2). Such an instructional process demands substantial commitment of time by faculty, in both clinical and field settings. Faculty responsible for teaching three or four courses, who have limited time, cannot be expected to move away easily from semantic knowledge (textbook material) and to emphasize procedural knowledge (actual use of teaching skills in laboratory settings). Administrators must recognize the curricular demands on faculty time in moving to laboratory-based teacher preparation. If university administrators and the public want quality, then conditions for high quality practice must be created. Among other things, this would include: (a) identifying education faculty who are interested in teacher education and who are allocated the time to effectively work with prospective teachers (Putnam, 1985); (b) rewarding faculty members for their clinical and field work with preservice teachers (Nolan, 1985); (c) creating conditions for effective scholarly productivity and then publicizing the type of scholarship that is available (Ducharme, 1985); and (d) engaging in more research on the teacher education culture and reflecting on the dynamics of specific institutional histories (Schwebel, 1985).

In summary, several approaches have been advanced with respect to increasing program rigor. The approaches include: increasing general education requirements, placing greater emphasis on pedagogy, increasing the length of the preparation period to accommodate the increased general education/pedagogical emphases, refining the linkages between general education and teacher preparation faculty and programs, and increasing financial support for teacher education. The approaches, viewed singularly and interactively, have merit. They may, however, evade a fundamental need for focus within the field: the need for teacher preparation faculty to model in their classrooms and through their organizational involvements the behaviors desired of program graduates.

In effect, the implicit assumption within many of the suggested approaches to strengthening program rigor is that "more is better." If there were more rigorous requirements, more time, more communication, and more funding, teacher preparation would be more effective. To an extent, this assumption is valid. Unless, however, these suggested increases are accompanied with an effective modeling experience for teacher education students as they matriculate through the program, the resultant program effects may be less positive than hypothesized. That is, unless faculty in both general education and teacher preparation programs model the principles of effective instruction in their own teaching, demonstrate some understanding of and a respect for disciplines other than their own, engage in inquiry, behave in caring ways with one another and with students, confront students whose work is unacceptable, work in the academic setting to be supportive of others in their quest for quality, and in other ways behave congruently with the best of what is known of effective schooling, the achievement of organizational and curriculum changes will likely engender program outcomes less impressive than what might be possible.

## CONCLUSION

The Commission papers in this volume provide a direction for reform efforts. The authors' ideas are not prescriptions for success; rather they are guides for reflection and action by educators and noneducators as efforts continue to strengthen teacher preparation.

The problems identified under the themes of teacher autonomy, practical experience, and program rigor defy simple solutions. Individually and collectively they pose a challenge to the faculty of each teacher preparation institution. The problems of teacher preparation were not generated overnight; they are unlikely to be resolved through quick and dramatic action. Each faculty must, within the context of its unique geographical and cultural setting, endeavor to address its program problems openly, collaboratively, and humbly, and develop long and short term action plans to produce a teacher education for the future that is more sophisticated, rigorous, and knowledge-based than it has been in the past. Such a goal is not an ideal. It is a must!

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# Section One

## Expectations for and the Environments of Teacher Education

The expectations for preservice teacher education are constantly changing. During the 1960s, public expectations for teacher preparation dealt with quantity issues (Will there be enough teachers?) instead of with quality. The tide of the 1980s has engendered, in the vernacular of today, a pursuit of excellence. And nowhere is that pursuit more evident than in schools, colleges, and departments of education (SCDEs). The commission reports and task force papers have focused attention directly on the policies, practices, and personnel of teacher education.

The response of teacher educators has varied. With behavior quite typical of any institution under attack, teacher educators have often circled the wagons and fired inward; they have blamed one another or sought political opportunity at the expense of the profession's overall development. And, despite the efforts for cohesiveness and a "common front" of organizations such as AACTE, factionalisms have emerged to mitigate the possibility of an effective response to external challenges. Hence, at the same time that state agencies and private institutions question the efficacy of teacher preparation, teacher educators are fighting among themselves for what little power and prestige still exists. There are exceptions, of course. Some limited number, perhaps those in the Holmes group, view the current troubles as a legitimate opportunity to advance the field of teacher education, but many others are fearful that emerging divisions within the profession will lead to a takeover of teacher training practices by state legislatures, if not by school districts (e.g., Houston), of teacher training practices.

Part of the problem confronting teacher educators relates to a history of responding to expectations that are neither appropriate nor valid. Hall, Doyle, and Hoffman describe, in Chapter 1, some of those expectations.

The expectation by the public that SCDEs prepare an oversupply of teachers is but one example. Another illustration is the expectancy that neophyte teachers be "finished products," capable of handling most, if not all, of the exigencies of classroom life. Such an expectation would be ridiculous in any other endeavor; even "trained" barbers apprentice with someone before they begin to cut and snip for money. But in education, misconceptions often prevail over reason and empirical evidence. Despite the data suggesting how new teachers struggle (Fuller and Bown, 1975), individuals who have just completed preparation programs continue to be hired and placed in classrooms with little thought given by administrators to the complex set of skills that must be exhibited by new teachers for an entire school year, rather than for just a few weeks of student teaching.

Teacher educators should take particular note of the Hall, Doyle, and Hoffman argument that preservice preparation should be discontinuous from schooling. The point is a powerful one. It suggests that teacher educators have the skills to expose students to new and different role (teaching) models and to engender within students a critical perspective. The latter has been accomplished in some institutions with a degree of felicity: prospective teachers have learned how to critically reflect on the processes and activities of their own behaviors and of those exhibited by practicing teachers (see, for example, Zeichner and Teitelbaum, 1982). Somewhat more difficult to achieve is the availability to students of a repertoire of teacher role models who exhibit the behaviors supposedly necessary for innovative teaching. The "do as I say, not as I do" approach is still prevalent. And prospective teachers, as a result, develop a certain cynicism about both program personnel and the concepts taught in methods courses. Exceptions to this "hypocrite rule" are emerging. For example, Putnam (1985) describes efforts by faculty members to use multiple approaches, including demonstration techniques and role modeling, to help preservice teachers acquire essential skills.

One of the most prevalent expectations of the 1980s is that SCDEs begin to certificate students who are more academically and pedagogically capable than were the teachers of the 1970s. Schwartz, in Chapter 2, deals directly with the issue of recruiting, selecting, and retaining high-quality teachers. The issue is not simple, particularly in a culture where teacher salaries and prestige are deplorably low. Convincing the brightest and best to "do" with less is not easy and is not without, perhaps, a certain duplicity on the part of teacher educators. Schwartz argues that the answer is in carefully socializing prospective teachers to deal with both the good and the bad of teaching and in responding to some apparent dilemmas in educational practice. The dilemmas are not new or different; they deal with problems evident to educators and noneducators throughout the last decade, if not longer. What is new are the data available to answer some of the questions that Schwartz poses. For example, Schwartz asks: Can students be trained to do what good teachers do and be what good teachers are, or must some basic aptitudes be present before training? Research by Collins (1976), Anderson, Evertson, and Brophy (1979), and Good and Grouws (1979) suggests that individuals can be trained to exhibit critical teaching skills. Berliner (1985) also highlights the efficacy of training procedures in helping prospective teachers acquire essential instructional dispositions and approaches.

The burgeoning research and conceptual literature are providing new insights into the inherent dilemmas of teaching. New technology and knowledge will ameliorate some of the problems highlighted by Schwartz, but even the best resources will be wasted if teacher education fails to maintain its vitality for all the various significant actors: teacher educators, preservice teachers, beginning teachers . . . and veteran teachers. To retain good teachers, high-quality programs must be offered, both by SCDEs and school systems. Once such programs are in place and implemented, recruitment efforts, in all their different forms, will begin to produce positive results.

The final chapter in this section focuses on teacher education as an all-university responsibility. With recent legislation in California, the Hughes-Hart School Reform Act of 1983, responsibility for teacher training is beginning to move out of the university setting and back to the public schools. Many applaud such circumstances and, indeed, argue, as Jones suggests, that what is occurring now is a formalizing of past informal practices. Because of the powerful impact that cooperating teachers have on preservice teachers (Copeland, 1979), one could argue that the California plan is legitimizing extant practice.

But the California-type plans have a more pernicious potential. They have the capacity to reduce teaching to cookbook, atheoretical prescriptions. The value of the university setting for teacher preparation is the constant emphasis on both research and practice. Faculty members, with varying degrees of proficiency, must constantly bridge the gap between the two dimensions. This synthesis function will not be one that is easily fulfilled by those outside academia.

Jones deals directly with the expectations and environment of the university community. Her claim is that teacher education should remain on the college campus, where integrated teacher education is possible. The notion is ideal—to have the constituents in the university community focused on teacher education—but the reality of accomplishing such an integration, even with university presidents using their "bully pulpits" to achieve the goal, will be difficult. The real power of the Jones chapter may be its focus on teacher educators' attempts to change the expectations and environment of teacher training. By soliciting arts and science faculty input on methods of achieving program integration and student selection, it may be possible to break down the walls of prejudice that prevent intra-university communication and that militate against the preparation of teachers who have a good general education, who know the content in their area of specialization, and who understand how to present ideas to learners.

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# I

# The Schools and Preservice Education: Expectations and Reasonable Solutions

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Our country's educational system is embroiled in controversy. Rightly or wrongly, the general public sees a precipitous decline in the quality of teachers in our schools. The search for the ultimate cause of this problem weaves a complex path that inevitably leads to teacher education and, in particular, preservice teacher education. If only better teachers were given better preparation, we wouldn't have undisciplined schools and poor test scores, or so the argument runs.

H. L. Mencken once observed that for every complex problem there is a simple solution, and it is usually wrong. For preservice teacher education, simple solutions abound, and most, if not all, are in the final analysis, wrong. In this paper we argue that simple solutions in preservice teacher education are wrong primarily because they are built on misunderstandings of the enterprise, misunderstandings that are tied to a set of incomplete and sometimes inaccurate expectations for preservice teacher education and its relationship to what goes on in elementary and secondary schools.

We examine three aspects of expectations for preservice teacher education: (a) general expectations regarding what preservice teacher education is supposed to do for the schools; (b) expectations regarding teacher educators that are embedded in contexts in which teachers are educated, i.e., schools and institutions of higher education; and, (c) expectations that preservice students hold regarding the occupation of teaching. The concluding section contains some specific recommendations upon which to build the much needed reform in preservice teacher education programs.

## WHAT PRESERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION IS SUPPOSED TO DO FOR SCHOOLS

Teacher education is like most organizational systems designed to produce, create, or further develop a product. The entire enterprise is shaped to a large degree by the forces of the marketplace. That is to say, teacher education is not immune from the expectations and needs of those who will ultimately take on its graduates—the schools.

What do schools expect of preservice programs? At one level, preservice teacher education is expected to provide schools with a continuous supply, or better still an oversupply, of highly qualified candidates. This seems to be a fairly reasonable expectation until one considers the fact that the demand for new teachers varies enormously from time to time and from place to place. Population trends over the past three decades, for example, have caused dramatic shifts in the demand for new teachers. Presumably teacher education as an enterprise is responsible for anticipating these demand cycles and deliberately adjusting the supply accordingly. Of course, the reality has been the reverse. Supply inevitably seems to reach its peak when demand hits a low point, and supply is at its lowest when demand becomes critical. Moreover, there is a natural delay in the response cycle that increases the probability that the number of graduates of teacher education programs will not keep pace with the need for new teachers.

The fact is that preservice teacher education exerts little proactive control over the supply of teachers. The available supply is governed, rather, by marketplace factors such as perceptions of the occupation, expectations of job opportunities, and relative salary advantages. Supply levels cannot be increased simply by improving the quality of teacher education programs or by making them appear to be more exciting. Career choices are not based on the attractiveness of preparation programs. Indeed, would anyone expect to find a prospective law student who asserts: "I want to be a lawyer because I think I'm going to like law schools."

At another level, preservice teacher education is expected to graduate finished products: fully prepared and competent teachers, indistinguishable from their experienced colleagues, able to handle the daily particulars of schools and classrooms, and needing no further support, assistance, or school-system energies. Few school systems acknowledge the complexity of teaching and the demands of their own complicated curricula by providing preservice graduates with 30–40 hours of focused inservice designed specifically to support their first year of teaching. Schools expect immediate and total implementation.

From our perspective, it is simply unreasonable to expect that teachers will learn everything they need to know in a brief preservice experience, especially because much of the knowledge teachers acquire is derived from many experiences with particular cases and situations. When teachers ultimately reach this finished-product attitude, it is not surprising that in hindsight they become somewhat disenchanted with their preservice preparation.

Finally, preservice teacher education is often seen as the primary, if not the sole, link between research (new knowledge developed in higher education settings and research centers) and practice (application in real classrooms). As a result, teacher education is frequently expected to be a source of innovation in education, to prepare candidates to change the status quo in schools, and to overcome archaic ways of teaching. From this perspective, preservice preparation should be discontinuous from schooling. Candidates should not be exposed to standard practices and role models or trained to work in conventional settings. Rather, they should be encouraged to develop a critical perspective regarding school practice, adopt innovative philosophies of education, and learn progressive techniques and programs. In the extreme, a missionary view of teacher preparation would suggest that students have little contact with the realities of schools and classrooms.

In considering these multiple expectations and the ebb and flow of intensity of the various expectations as they interact with one another and the societal context at large, it is no wonder that preservice teacher education is in disarray. In attempting to do all things, none is done well. The track record for preservice teacher education is one of alternately preparing too few or too many ill-equipped teachers who operate initially (and quite justifiably) from a perspective of survival rather than a vision of what teaching and schools can be. Indeed, it is reasonable to ask whether we can expect teacher education to bear the good news in a change resistant environment or to assume responsibility for effects that require the combined resources of an entire school system.

## INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXTS AND THE PRESERVICE TEACHER EDUCATOR

Preservice teacher education takes place in multiple contexts: schools of education, academic departments, schools, and classrooms. Typically, preservice teacher education is a secondary (and in some cases, tertiary) function in each of these contexts. Schools and classrooms exist to teach elementary and secondary pupils, and teacher education activities are often pushed to the background because of the demands of the primary task. Academic departments exist to provide general education and to advance knowledge in specific disciplines, and teacher education must find its place within these dominant activities. Schools of education, embedded in academic reward and prestige systems, are often pulled away from preservice preparation, an effect that is largest in the major public and private universities in which teacher education ironically enjoys the lowest status in the array of graduate programs and research.

Who are the teacher educators that function in these institutional contexts? This is not an easy question to answer. There are, in fact, few individuals who would describe themselves or be described by others as teacher educators. Analogous to the institutional settings in which teacher education takes place, teacher educators assume their role as being a secondary or even tertiary responsibility. Professors in colleges of education most often regard themselves as content area specialists and researchers. They are teacher educators only by circumstance. The filtering process that has allowed these individuals to be successful and to rise in academic settings is tied to research productivity, not to skills or to a commitment to teacher education.

The situation is not so terribly different in school settings where regular classroom teachers participate in preservice teacher education as cooperating teachers in early field experiences and student teaching. These teachers have achieved status in schools through success in their classroom teaching. They are involved in teacher education most often because they have been identified as appropriate models for teaching, but they may not in fact have any skills or interest in teacher education itself. Their concerns are for their own students first and for their own work setting second.

Because teacher education is a secondary function in its many contexts, there are centrifugal forces that pull the enterprise apart. Thus, for students, the path toward teaching is often circuitous and discontinuous, perpetually under construction. The students must make some sense of the parts and integrate them into a meaningful program. Moreover, those who educate teachers in each of these contexts never face the difficult task of holding the enterprise together and defining what constitutes reasonable knowledge of subject matter, pedagogy, or classroom practice. We end up defining and rearranging credit hours but neglect such basic questions as what an elementary teacher must reasonably know about mathematics or what a junior high school science teacher needs to know about science. To further compound the problem, recent trends suggest that such definitions will be made by state education agencies and their subcontractors who develop competency tests, not by teacher educators in either academic departments or schools of education.

## WHAT THE PRESERVICE TEACHER EXPECTS OF THE PROFESSION

The choice made by an individual to enter teaching as a career is like the choice made by an individual to enter any occupation. Insofar as choosing a career is a conscious, rational decision-making process, the individual considers the potential for rewards and also the expectation for occupational satisfaction. Teaching as an occupation has undergone enormous changes over the past few decades in terms of the reward structure and the potential for satisfaction. These changes have led many individuals to reject teaching as a career. Many others enter the profession with expectations tied to the past, not to the present, and certainly not to the future.

We must be as honest as possible with our preservice students in terms of establishing reasonable expectations for teaching. The extrinsic rewards for teaching, as for other occupations, come chiefly through two avenues: pay and prestige. While in most occupations pay and prestige are pretty much in line with one another (i.e., the greater the prestige the higher the pay), in the case of teaching this has not always been true. Historically, pay for teachers has been relatively low, while prestige has been fairly high, at least in comparison to other occupations. If one believes the latest Gallop Polls on the public's view of teaching as a profession, this relationship no longer exists. The prestige level of teaching has dropped so that it now is at a point that is in line with its pay levels. Of course, teaching has been able to compete with other professions for high quality people by virtue of its availability to minorities and women. Now that other professions are opening up to minorities and women (e.g., the number of women graduating from medical schools has risen from 6 to 25 percent over the past two decades), teaching as a career choice is becoming less and less attractive. The expectations for an income level that is commensurate to the entry and preparation requirements for the profession are simply not in line with the competing careers.

Traditionally, the intrinsic reward of teaching was the fulfillment one received as a result of helping a student to learn. But survey studies suggest that teaching is not as rewarding as it used to be. It appears that a majority of those currently teaching, if they had it to do over again, would choose another career. A lot of the dissatisfaction is attributed not just to low pay but to the characteristics of the work place. Apparently schools are not very attractive places to spend a day . . . for teachers or for students.

Philip Jackson, in his classic report of life in classrooms (Jackson, 1968), describes in very insightful terms what it is like to teach. In one part of the study he relates the findings from interviews with teachers who had been identified as being particularly effective in the classroom. Their talk about the nature of classrooms and about what makes teaching appealing gives an insider's perspective about what makes teaching worthwhile. One theme that the teacher talk centered on was *immediacy:* the variety and excitement that comes from working with children in classrooms. Teachers gauged the adequacy of their own teaching performance on the immediate reactions of the children and on their growth over short periods rather than on standardized test scores. This group of effective teachers, in fact, paid little attention to test scores as an index of their effectiveness. Teachers also spoke around the theme of *informality* in the classroom; teachers enjoyed the "at ease" nature of their interactions with the students. Their classrooms were far less structured than the ones that they themselves had studied in as students. *Autonomy* was another theme that these teachers addressed. They expressed satisfaction with a flexible curriculum and freedom from the invasion of administrators bent on evaluation. Finally, these teachers spoke of *individuality* as an important characteristic of teaching: the personal satisfaction that comes from doing a job your own way and doing it well.

Life in classrooms has certainly changed over the past 15 years. Whether or not one agrees with Jackson's effective teachers in terms of what they value as important, we could all agree that today there are fewer of the intrinsic rewards that kept those effective teachers in teaching. Immediacy, autonomy, informality, and individuality are quickly becoming things of the past. Policy mandates affecting curriculum and instruction are bombarding teachers from all levels: the local school, the district, and the state. Whether the areas of professional reward identified by Jackson will eventually be replaced by themes that are stronger, remains to be seen. In preservice teacher education we need to be sure that our students know what they can expect life in classrooms to be like, in terms of day-to-day professional activity and responsibility.

## SOME PROBLEMS WITH SIMPLE SOLUTIONS

If there is one thing we do not lack in preservice teacher education, it is ideas for how we might solve all our problems. Each proposal brings with it a certain surface level of appeal, in that it promises quick relief and reveals, perhaps ever so slightly, a part of the complex problem. Only when we "play" the simple solutions out to their inevitable ends do we see the incredible complexity of the problem.

For example, many have suggested that the underlying problem is one of locating a talented pool of teachers to work with in the first place. If colleges of education would only tighten up on their admissions policies (i.e., raise their standards for entry into the preservice program), then we could strengthen the profession. Ignoring the fact that we have no research base upon which to derive the standards for selecting those who would hold promise as effective teachers, advocates of this solution recommend selection on the basis of SAT scores or the like. Colleges of education are then placed in a position of competing directly, in the same talent pool, with other professional schools. The simple fact is that teacher salaries, work conditions, and professional prestige are not competitive. The adequate supply expectation of schools would not be met. A similar fate would likely meet efforts to extend the professional preparations period to include a fifth or sixth year program of work.

Colleges of education are still in the midst of enacting one of the simple solutions of the 1970s: more and earlier field experiences in the preservice programs. It appears at this time that field-based programs prepare future teachers for "taking over" and replicating the status quo. Field experiences, however, take away time from courses in the preservice program that are designed to develop new insights and conceptions of curriculum and instruction as they emerge from the research literature. As a result, the innovation that schools expect from preservice training does not materialize. Similar proposals to remove preservice teacher education from higher education altogether would produce no more successful results. Preservice teacher education may not be a very good bridge between research and practice, but it is the only one we have at the present. We need to build alternative points of contact into the system before we destroy the one existing link.

The point being made here is not that these particular innovations are ill-intended or even wrong. All certainly offer some benefits in the long run. But they are representative of the ways that many of the simple solutions being proposed misdirect our attention from the fundamental problem: The creation of reasonable expectations for preservice teacher education.

## A REASONABLE SOLUTION

The analysis here suggests that teacher educators, the public at large, and teacher education students must clarify their expectations about what preservice education is and can be. The establishment of a National Commission on Excellence in Teacher Education and the recent national conference "Beyond the Looking Glass: Policies, Practices, and Research in Teacher Education" held at the Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, The University of Texas at Austin (Hord, O'Neal, &

Smith, 1985) are steps in that direction. But more needs to be done, and we must remember that clarifying expectations is a continuous process because of the centrifugal forces in the contexts in which preservice teacher education occurs. The greatest danger is that simple solutions which focus on "fixing up" teacher education at one point in time will misdirect energies that need to be spent on the complex tasks of redefining the content of teacher preparation and of integrating the multiple contexts that necessarily constitute the fabric of the enterprise. In the end, clarifying expectations for preservice teacher education might take us a long way toward realizing the dream that the careers of teachers and the processes of teacher education be treated as a continuum of professional growth.

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# II

# Recruitment, Selection, Retention and Graduation of Teacher Education Candidates

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Professor Harold Hill of the *Music Man* fame said it first:

> "Friends we have trouble, right here in River City,
> Yes, friends, we have Trouble,
> And that starts with T
> And that rhymes with P
> And that stands for Pool!"

And that, friends and colleagues in teacher education, is our problem. We have trouble with our Pool. According to current studies, our pool of teacher education candidates needs cleansing, broadening, and deepening. The brightest and the best students, at a time when our public schools—and indeed our nation—need them, are not going into the classroom, and those who do get there either have trouble finding a job or leave after the first few years of teaching. The drop-out rate among first-year teachers is about 50%. Recent evidence suggests that the trouble with our pool is linked to new recruits who are less qualified academically than those who are leaving the profession. However, there is also some evidence indicating that they are as well qualified as the non-education students (Powell, 1984). Furthermore:

> The number of new entrants is insufficient to meet the coming demand for teachers. The most academically able recruits to teaching leave the profession within a very short time. Shortages of qualified teachers in subject areas

> such as mathematics and science are expected to grow over the next few years into a more generalized teacher shortage as enrollments increase and the supply of prospective teachers continues to shrink. (Darling-Hammond, 1984, p. v)

Who is to blame? Some popular accounts would lead you to believe that potential teacher education candidates are competent, high achieving liberal arts and science college students until they get into the professional programs in teacher education where we give them a "dumb pill," put them through some methods courses, and then send them out to the schools where they cannot cope. No one and no institution can be that self-destructive. Clearly, the diminishing candidate pool is only a reflection of the larger national problem, the decline in test scores over the last ten years. For example, SAT scores for preservice teachers dropped from a mean of 453 in 1972 to 424 in 1980, and are just this year beginning to show some slight signs of recovery. And there are other factors contributing to the problem in teacher education.

> Demographic trends are provoking supply and demand imbalances for teachers. More significantly, though, academically talented women and minorities, who were once restricted to teaching as a professional option, are now choosing other occupations that promise greater financial rewards, more opportunities for advancement and better working conditions. Teachers' salaries fall well below those of most other occupations that require a college degree, and average teachers' salaries have been declining for the past decade. The non-pecuniary rewards of teaching have also been dwindling as teachers are increasingly viewed as bureacratic functionaries rather than as practicing professionals. Lack of input into professional decision making, overly restrictive bureacratic controls, and inadequate administrative supports for teaching contribute to teacher dissatisfaction and attrition, particularly, among the most highly qualified members of the teaching force. (Darling-Hammond, 1984, p. v)

Recent studies have claimed that the quality of teacher education programs and certification criteria is infinitely variable (Feistritzer, 1984). Some states, such as New Jersey, California and Texas, have approved alternative models that include no pedagogy or professional preparation, but which are based on on-the-job training as a route toward acquiring a teaching credential. These credentialing procedures are narrow in focus and shortsighted. Teachers have always been asked to do more than teach the three R's. Ravitch (1984) traces the schools' role in social reform over the last forty years and the attendant expansion of the role of teacher from transmitter of knowledge, skills, and mainstream beliefs and behaviors to one of social change agent. Schools and teachers are not able to cure society's ills, "responsibilities for which they were entirely unsuited. When they have failed, it was usually because their leaders and their public alike had forgotten their real limitations as well as their real strengths" (p. 10).

As if the above factors were not enough, schools are difficult places in which to work; they were built for children, with few accommodations for adults and adult interaction. Lortie (1975) talks about the isolation of the teacher and the lack of a career ladder; Kerr (1983) describes the bone-freezing boredom of teaching, because teaching, as it is presently structured, does not allow an adult to change functions or settings from time to time. Finally, Schwartz (1983), Little (1983), and others looking at the stressful working conditions found in urban schools, point to a system that does not provide necessary rewards in status, security, and sociability. Teachers suffer from the "Rodney Dangerfield syndrome" in that they get little respect from a negative press and public, their jobs frequently put them in positions of fiscal (and physical!) jeopardy, and they have little time or opportunity to make friends and interact with other adults during the course of the school day. From the perspective of intellectual stimulation, self-respect, economic security, and friendship, it would be irrational for the more able student to choose teaching as a career.

Now, what is the good news? What are the incentives to teaching as a career? Why did Mr. Chips and Miss Dove enter and stay in teaching? As one talks with teachers in the field and with prospective teachers in training, it has become clear that the rewards are largely psychic. This is congruent with the missionary mythology that surrounds teaching. For example, teachers speak of the sense of having a mission in life, of pride in their profession, of the satisfaction they experience when a child learns a lesson, of the true belief that they are making a difference, of the intellectual stimulation required at the secondary school level to keep current in their discipline, of the summers off for travel and professional development activities, of the job security that may be a thing of the past, of the joy of working with young people, of the autonomy to teach as one likes once the classroom door is closed, of the satisfaction they experience when they achieve a mutuality of functioning with a group of children, of the opportunities to work with university types on curriculum and research, and of the sure knowledge that they are important and worthy participants in the society and carriers and transmitters of the skills, knowledge, beliefs, and behavior of the culture.

Other perks are built into the profession. Prospective teachers speak of the ease of entry into the teaching ranks, of how teaching is good preparation for just about any other career, of the minimal need for retraining after a maternity or military leave, of the short working days that permit a woman to function in the traditional roles of wife and homemaker and allow the male teacher to take the administration courses related to advancement in the profession.

It would seem from the contrasts embodied in the above paragraphs, that if teacher education programs socialize prospective teachers to the work place with only the good news and do not prepare them for the bad, expectations will be violated and the *joie de vivre* that the beginning teacher brings to the school can quickly turn to resentment. But, truth in advertising mandates that teacher preparation programs present a fair and accurate picture of the role and work environment for which the individual is being trained. Teacher educators are dealing with paradoxes, and those paradoxes must be addressed before we can begin to get specific about how to recruit the "best and the very brightest" to the ranks of teaching.

## THE FIVE DILEMMAS

America is a multicultural nation featuring the core of mainstream beliefs and behaviors that most cultures display and by which they are stereotyped, like a common language, or an accent, or an attitude. That is, not all Los Angeles citizens speak English; in fact, more people speak Spanish in Los Angeles than in Acapulco. Not all Bostonians say "Hahvud" instead of Harvard. Not all Chicagoans are gangsters. Similarly, there is really no American public school system as John Goodlad has pointed out in his massive *A Place Called School* (1983). Rather, there are some common starting points and some federal, state, and local regulations to which each school building responds in a unique way. This is one of the problems any educational reform movement in this country faces: the tradition of local control of education. The uniqueness of each state, municipality, and school building responding to reform initiatives allows for infinite variations on the reform theme. The reform can proceed at very different rates in California and Florida and not move at all in some other areas of the country. The universal element in all of these reforms is that they must in some way respond to five dilemmas before the renaissance can proceed.

This is an exciting time in American education and in teacher education. Major pieces of reform legislation in education have been passed and are now in the process of being implemented in 43 states, but unless we attend to the five dilemmas, we shall have missed the opportunity generated by the many reports and the national attention focused on schools, teachers, and teacher preparation programs. Certainly, the brightest and best of our college students will want some responses to these paradoxes if we expect to recruit, retain, and induct them into teaching. Briefly, the five dilemmas are:

### Equity or Excellence?

Most of the major reports issued concerning the state of education and teacher education have recommended raising entry standards for teaching and teacher preparation programs. Many states have individual exit examinations for credentialing purposes, and all have program approval mandates for teacher education programs. Historically, however, teaching has had relatively flexible admission and exit standards and has been the road to upward social and professional mobility for those who had been previously excluded from a share of the "goodies" of the mainstream society. Will higher admission standards exclude minorities, older adults, naturalized citizens, and others whose skills and talents are useful in schools? On the other hand, if standards are not raised, how will teaching and teacher education really achieve professional status and first class citizenship in the professional and academic communities? Further, if teacher educators and the teaching corps miss the opportunity to elevate entry and exit criteria and to upgrade schools and the intellectual calibre of those entering the profession, are they willing to be responsible for the next two decades of education and its consequences? Creative ways are required to combine the principles of equity and produce excellent high quality teacher education programs.

### Egalitarianism or Differentiation?: Career Ladders for Teachers

One of the core assumptions of the teaching profession in public schools is: A teacher is a teacher is a teacher. Teacher associations and unions bargain for a single pay scale, standardized hours for classes, and preparation time; the only differences in salary are based on seniority. One teacher's opinion and contribution, in the formal structure of the school, is equal to any other's. However, the reform legislation, educational researchers, and even one large union, are calling for career ladders, differentiated rewards as a teacher displays special skills, knowledge, and initiative. Some legislation calls for mentor/master teachers with more pay and greater responsibilities. Former Secretary of Education Terrell Bell suggested that public school teachers adopt the university faculty ranking system. As one talks with individuals who have recently assumed the role of mentor/master, one hears how they deliberately downplay their new positions when working with their colleagues: The egalitarian tradition is hard to overcome.

### Teaching: Art or Science?

The third dilemma is a bit like the nature/nurture paradox. Are artists born or trained? Are teachers born or trained? There are those who would say that teaching is an instrumental or practical art, in that the acts in teaching are too complex to be reduced to a formula (Gage, 1978). Others (Berliner, 1984) maintain that over the last twenty years we have established a core of research findings that detail the scientific basis for teaching. Prospective teachers must learn the techniques and practice them before they can become virtuosos in any art form. The problem is that we have not had a body of research containing validated, replicable, successful practices in teacher education programs or on teachers in training. Available information is based on research done with teachers in practice. We know what good teachers do. The question is: Can students be trained to do what good teachers do and be what good teachers are? Or, must some basic aptitudes be present before training?

### The Curriculum: Standardization or Individualization?

Recent reports call for more standardization in the content of the curriculum at the K–12 level as well as for the teacher preparation programs. One report suggests that the "mess" in teacher credentialing standards across the states in content areas can be resolved by requiring a national teachers examination in content fields for certification (Feistritzer, 1984). This strikes at the heart of academia's tradition of academic freedom, and at the right of the professor to teach without restraints, to develop curriculum, and to structure the delivery as he/she wishes within peer-determined limits. Credentialing of and legislating mandates about teacher preparation programs reduce that autonomy and enhance standardization. In the role of protector of the commonwealth, state agencies will continue to move toward standardization of curriculum and teacher preparation, and in the name of academic freedom, university faculty and public school teachers will resist.

### The Focus of Instruction: The Curriculum of the Child?

Given the limited amount of time most programs use to prepare a teacher, choices must be made about the focus of the preparation endeavors. In the classroom, does one teach the curriculum or the child? The answer to that question may specify the instructional strategy to be emphasized. Will it be mastery learning, small group instruction, large group activity, coaching, emphasizing time-on-task strategies, classroom discipline, working with alterable variables or the double sigma effects, homogeneous grouping, heterogeneous grouping, audio-visual and computer-aids? Shall the handicapped be mainstreamed into regular classes or placed in special instructional units? At the university level, the content of the curriculum takes precedence over the student as an individual. In the kindergarten class, the reverse is true. How do teachers strike a balance, and what happens if they do not accommodate both dimensions?

The five dilemmas are not insoluble. Innovative and creative practices can reconcile the choices between the alternatives with a "both/and" approach. Some accommodations can be made without sacrificing quality.

Most important, dealing with the dilemmas must be accomplished with respect for different views, with appreciation for the cultural diversity of the public school population, and with considerable awe for the tremendous cultural ballast of the school as an institution. This last should not be overlooked. The schools have maintained their purpose and relationship with culture for the last 2000 years, since the days of Socrates. Above all, the dilemmas must be approached with an understanding of and admiration for the crucial nature and centrality of the role of the teacher in any reform movement. The training and occupational socialization offered by any teacher preparation program can only be as good as the faculty, the processes, and the candidates incorporated into the system.

## A CONCEPTUAL STRUCTURE

There are three assumptions basic to the following discussion. First, that teaching is an instrumental art, the preparation for which can be based on a core of scientific research findings; second, that the act of teaching is practiced in schools that are social systems composed of institutional roles defined by expectations and filled by individuals with unique personality needs. Third, the goal of any educational institution is to produce competent, intelligent, skilled, and productive persons. Given these assumptions, what sort of model would best describe ways to attract the best and the brightest to the field?

Probably the most efficient and effective model would be one that described, analyzed, and predicted a variety of person-preparation-performance fits. There is a reasonably solid body of research-engendered information describing the kinds of people who make good teachers, as well as what it is they do that is so effective. These findings could be used to develop a series of selection models, one for rural education settings, one for secondary education, another for early childhood education, and still another for vocational education. Teacher preparation programs, using the findings from effective teaching research, could develop a series of training modules for each setting or grade level matched with a projection of who would best fit each setting. After the generic core, some students would prepare for rural settings, some for specific programs in urban education, some for early childhood, and others for vocational education centers. Then, a supervised internship and induction period of two to three years would ease the transition from student to teacher and reduce the excessively high drop-out rate among beginning teachers. In this system, rewards would be commensurate with expertise.

Many scholars have indicated that systematic and specific teacher education programs are now possible, based on past and ongoing research on the peculiar nature of the teacher's work. The preparation institution and the school would collaborate on placement and ongoing inservice training, thus reducing the false dichotomy between preservice and inservice training. One of the elements of any profession is that initial preparation and continuing training are part of the same longitudinal career commitment. In effect, these are the recruitment, selection, training, and induction processes used by medicine and law, and they represent a traditional model of socialization into a profession.

Recruitment, selection, training, and induction into other professions ensure the individual of certain benefits that are not currently present in teaching. One of the norms of any profession is that the professional enjoys some form of public and private client trust, and this trust allows peer evaluation and sanction. The lifelong commitment to the profession means the practitioner will obey an ethical code emphasizing service and will make a commitment to best practices. The training period is long. Entry is difficult. Career rewards and the good life are predictable and are based on enhanced skill and knowledge, hard work, and excellence in professional performance. Teaching as it is currently structured does not meet these criteria. For the status of teaching to be elevated, seven policy and practice perspectives ought to be given serious consideration:

1. There would have to be wide-spread legislative and public policies raising salaries and improving working conditions in order to attract the brightest and the best;

2. Professional training and internships would have to be subsidized and school systems would not be able to hire teachers who did not complete internships and residencies;

3. Teachers would have to control entry to the profession through their certification and bar exam-type boards, and then be willing to take the responsibility to ensure minimum standards of performance, including policing their own colleagues;

4. A career ladder would have to be established and promotion and salaries would be based on meeting professional standards and exhibiting special skills and a high level of performance;

5. Teachers and university faculty would have to work together to synthesize and enhance the body of knowledge to be conveyed to novices, to produce a "Grey's Anatomy" of teaching. The craft of teaching would have to be demonstrated by and rehearsed with master professionals;

6. There would be a long and intensive training period at a university;

7. Teaching would have to become a full-time job with professional development built into the work day.

There are indications that some progress is being made toward achieving professional status as a by-product of the reforms being called for in teaching, schools, and preparation programs. California mandated that a beginning teacher's salary be $18,000; experiments are underway to add those difficult beginning years of teaching to the initial preparation period and to substantially lengthen the period of teacher training, enabling newcomers and experienced teachers to collaborate as colleagues in school improvement (Bush, 1983).

At this time it is difficult to develop a holistic model of recruitment, retention, and induction for an occupation that still has a very large "identity crisis." Questions about the recruitment and retention of traditionally underrepresented minorities in teaching might have better answers if candidates knew whether they were seeking a life-long commitment or engaging in preliminary occupational activity as an entry to another work role. It is important to remember, in reviewing the literature on attrition, selection, and retention, that although there are certain commonalities in any model designed to address these problems, it is necessary to identify what lies beneath a student's choice of preparatory programs.

Current evidence suggests that most college bound high school students are not interested in teaching as a profession (Mangieri and Kemper, 1984). In fact, of the more than 4000 students sampled by Mangieri and Kemper, only 9% indicated they were "very interested" in teaching as a profession. Of that group, three-quarters wanted to go into teaching to demonstrate the knowledge and skill they had in a particular subject area. The second reason more than two-thirds of this group wanted to enter teaching was to work with children. A follow-up survey was done by Mangieri and Kemper (1984) to find out why one-half of the students surveyed were not interested in teaching. In response to being asked what would attract them to teaching, the top three answers were: "considerably better salaries for teachers" (60%), "more rapid salary increases for teachers" (56%), and "better chances for professional advancement for teachers" (54%). The majority of those who were interested in teaching as a career were women. Women considered job security and the ability to work in an area of their choice to be attractive features of teaching. However, 50% of the men who rejected teaching as a career choice did so because of the low status, poor working conditions, and lack of recognition associated with being a teacher. The authors speculate that 49% of all students who said they were not interested were among the better academically qualified students. Clearly, improving teacher pay, the status of the occupation, working conditions, and opportunities for advancement would attract these better students.

Given all of the above constraints, are there ways in which to recruit, select, retain, and graduate competent students? Of course there are, but with one final caveat expressed by Vincent Tinto in his comprehensive work on student attrition:

> However constructed or designed, no program to reduce attrition is better than its implementation and management within the institution. . . . It is one thing to conceive of, even design, an institutional retention effort; it is another to implement and manage one within the often rigid maze of institutional structures. Here several concluding observations are called for. First, successful retention programs are most frequently longitudinal in character. Second, they are almost always internally tied into the admission process (and the placement services). Third, their implementation generally involves a wide range of institutional actors. Not infrequently, successful retention programs become opportunities for institutional self-renewal, an outcome which, in the long-run, may be more beneficial to the institution's well-being than the simple reduction of dropout rates. (Tinto, 1982, p. 699)

Read "system of recruitment, selection, retention and induction" for "program to reduce attrition" in the above passage and you have the basic principle for any comprehensive effort to attract talented students to teacher education.

In summary, a comprehensive conceptual model for recruitment and retention in teacher education and in the field of teaching circa 1984 would necessarily be incomplete because the field is in a crucial transition period. Thirty years ago, one could say with some certainty:

- recruit women and minorities for they will stay in the field. There are bright students among these groups who view teaching as a career on the road to upward mobility;
- select academically well qualified students who are nurturing, like to work with children, are not concerned with working conditions too much, who love their subject and want to stay close to home;
- retain and induct into the profession those students who perform well academically, serve a short supervised student teaching hitch, and then cut them loose after graduation to sink or swim.

It is not possible to count on these principles today, for alas and hurrah, the world has changed, and, hopefully, so have we.

## RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ACTION

There follow some concrete recommendations about initiatives that universities, teachers, and public agencies can pursue to attract competent students to teacher education and the field. The recommendations are predicated on the notion that teaching is a profession for some, and for others an entry level first occupation leading to diverse professional careers. The research suggests that these two strands are sex specific, but the recommendations apply for all groups, although there are special recommendations related to underrepresented minorities.

From my perspective, *recruitment* of particular populations implies that *selection* models and criteria have been defined and applied to the applicants. *Retention* entails reducing dropouts from the university and lowering the shocking attrition rates for beginning teachers. Supervised induction to teaching must be part of any retention plan. Graduation from the university in this view simply marks a different state of professional preparation for teaching. There is much to be done about schools as workplaces and about teachers' salaries, status, and credentialing that teacher educators in the university and in the schools can influence. I am reminded of what Margaret Mead said when she was asked, how does one begin to educate children for world peace? "The answer is everywhere at once." The recommendations begin everywhere at once.

**Planning**

**Any comprehensive, longitudinal recruitment and selection plan for attracting students into teacher education must include both a broad base and a locally targeted public relations element; an examination of criteria and procedures for admission of students to programs; a provision for redesigning the curriculum where appropriate; a provision for retraining faculty and for articulating with K–12 schools, community colleges and other agencies with potential candidates; and alternative models of what constitutes desirable candidates.** This generic recommendation lists some of the essential elements of an institutional effort to attract well qualified candidates to teaching, including underrepresented minority students, e.g., Hispanics. The examination of admission criteria to teacher education programs could mean raising standards, while at the same time expanding remedial services to students who need academic work but who have the motivation and other characteristics deemed desirable from the selection models developed. Provisions should also be made to accommodate the atypical candidate who may not conform to a traditional model.

**Implementation**

**The university should create cadres of trained recruiters consisting of faculty in teacher education, media experts and market research strategists, and liaisons to target populations. Further, local groups should be contacted in order to build community support and gain access to potential candidates.** Business and industry, the military, and the government spend millions of dollars to entice the best and the brightest into the fields that service their enterprises. Educators do very little of this. The technology is available that will allow a university and a teacher education program to target a potential population, saturate the media and the school or community college, engage in active recruiting, and begin to build some bridges to the programs. Time, resources, and the willingness to use commercial techniques to attract students to teacher education are needed to accomplish this. A five-year trial period is recommended before any summative evaluation of the effectiveness of the effort is completed and decisions are made about continuation of the effort.

**Teacher educators and university recruiters should participate in regional, local, and national events to share recruitment strategies, learn from others, and form networks so that students can be transitioned from one educational agency to another with a minimum of anxiety.** Personal contacts among counselors, admission officers, and teacher educators, should be encouraged. Too often, transfer students from community colleges and/or secondary schools experience a debilitating culture shock upon entry to the university. There is some research to indicate that when counselors and admissions officers know each other and can work together, the retention rate is higher. The same concept can be applied to entry into the teacher education program. Having one faculty member personally refer a student to another gives the student a sense of security and self-esteem. The implementation of this recommendation is relatively low cost, but does involve institutional commitment to the time as well as travel funds necessary to support networking activities. It may also mean endorsing university-wide teacher education committees and exchanges to connect the rest of the university to the teacher preparation programs.

**Universities and teacher preparation programs should employ and train skilled counselors to work with their counterparts at two- and four-year institutions, particularly at institutions with large numbers of underrepresented minority students.** Attention should be given to the role-modeling aspect of this endeavor and, whenever possible, counselors should be underrepresented minorities. A similar group in teacher preparation programs should be available to guide all students through the maze and mysteries of the certification processes and who can provide academic and some personal counseling, if necessary.

**Any recruitment effort in teacher education must adhere scrupulously to the principle of "truth in advertising" when advising students about the career of teaching.** This recommendation costs very little money, but it does require a great deal of self and occupational analysis. Interested students might be directed to talk with recent graduates or students currently in training, to visit several schools, or to contact their favorite teacher. The career options must be presented accurately, however, or the attrition rates during the induction period will continue to be abnormally high.

**A variety of collaborative models and experimental programs is available for replication and should be considered, particularly at the middle and high school levels.** When schools and universities actively collaborate on teacher training programs, additional benefits accrue. Students are able to see university professors in the schools working with teachers and students. High school teachers can identify potential candidates for the teaching profession. Some programs have established tracking systems for talented students and have invited them to campus during the summer to participate in tutoring or pre-professional activities. Socialization to the profession should start early, and these "learning bridge" programs seem to be very successful experiments.

**The university and the teacher education program should examine their selection and entry criteria for equity violations and determine if sufficient remediation opportunities exist to accommodate underrepresented minority populations.** California now has an entry examination for all candidates in teacher education. This examination also serves as an exit criterion, for one may not earn a credential unless the CBEST (California Basic Educational Skills Test) is passed. The test, like most others, has a verbal, a math, and a writing sample evaluation. After two years, the statewide test results indicate that Hispanic students have a more difficult time passing the examination than do other students, particularly the language portion. If this is the case, then the academy (the whole academy, not just the teacher preparation programs, or the schools and colleges of education) must take the responsibility for remediating the deficiencies in the necessary language skills. Equity and excellence can be accommodated with planning, resources, and commitment. To lower standards is patronization; to adequately prepare to meet standards is good judgment.

**Financial aid information must be made available by the university and teacher education programs to students before and during their professional program experiences. If the teacher preparation period is extended, then increases in financial aid are necessary.**

**In addition to the recommended actions at the university, teacher educators should work with the public, legislators, and their colleagues in the field to design and implement appropriate career ladders and role differentiation in the schools. Teachers should be encouraged to assume the responsibility for their own profession by controlling entry, by evaluating their colleagues, and by working for increased status for the profession.**

**Teacher educators and the profession must enlist public and administrative support to redesign the schools as workplaces, to make teaching a full-time job, and to restructure schools as places where adults as well as children can learn and develop.**

**Research and Development**

**Additional work must be done on the person-preparation-practice syndrome in order to fine tune the system of selecting and training teachers.** Research studies should be mounted to follow-up some of the work on teacher stress and burn-out that has revealed that what is creative tension to one teacher in an urban school is unbearable stress to another. What are the coping strategies, personality characteristics, family background, and teaching effectiveness patterns exhibited by individuals in various settings? These data have implications for recruitment and selection as well as for training and entry into teaching.

**Various models of recruitment, selection, retention, and induction should be mounted in experimental modes.** Several diverse institutions should be given appropriate funding to mount programs with the understanding that there will be extensive documentation to determine which are most effective in recruiting the brightest and the best, and in keeping those recruits in the profession for at least five years. Experimentation with the Masters in the Art of Teaching format, followed with a supervised internship for the first three years, is recommended by Robert Bush, B. O. Smith, and many other scholars. If these support systems are promised during training, would that enhance the attractiveness of the profession?

Finally, the university and teacher preparation programs must look to themselves and engage in program revision, faculty development, as well as maintaining connections with research and the field. The best recruitment, selection, and retention programs will go for nought if the core of the professional preparation program is not conceptually sound and research based, intellectually stimulating, practically useful, and generative of pride in graduates. So where do we begin to clear, expand, and deepen our pool? Everywhere at once. Everywhere at once!

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# III

# Teacher Education: An All-University Responsibility

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Before exploring teacher education as an all-university responsibility, I want to pose a more fundamental question: Is teacher education a university responsibility at all? States, of course, have the legal responsibility for teacher certification; and until very recently, they have largely given this responsibility over to the university. But in terms of the more than 300-year history of teacher credentialing in America, the formal link between university teacher education and state certification is not very old. Not until 1920 did most states rely either on presentation of university course credits to qualify for state licenses or permit universities to certify teachers directly or indirectly through the program approval process—a process by which university programs are approved by a state commission if they meet standards set by the state (Bush & Enemark, 1975). Up until the 1820s, the decision about who could teach rested with local school boards. About 1825 that decision was shifted to the county (Kinney, 1964). And in the 1860s it moved to the state (Stinnett, 1969). States used examinations until the time the university credits and/or program approval process was introduced.

This formal link between university education and teacher certification has remained basically intact from the 1920s until the 1980s. A few states, like California, offered an examination alternative to taking courses in the subject preparation, but few students took advantage of it. Most preferred to attend a university with an approved program as a means of earning a credential.

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Events of the past several years, however, may be shifting the legal responsibility for teacher education away from the university. The basic skills tests for certification, which were introduced a few years ago and now are used in a majority of states, may herald at least a partial return to the state examination approach. Indeed, in California such an examination is a requirement for those who wish to be admitted to teacher education programs that are approved by the state. Thus, even traditional university prerogatives about admission requirements to particular programs have been preempted. Should support for expanded testing grow and assessment by the state become the sole basis for credentialing, then certification will be centralized at the state level, no longer linked directly to the university.

The motivation for the basic skills tests is clear. There are serious questions about the university's selection process of entrants to teacher preparation programs, about the quality of education in the arts and sciences, and about the effectiveness of approved programs in professional education.

Another pressure is moving the responsibility for teacher education away from the university toward the public school. This move reflects the interest in and influence of the teaching profession, itself, on educating teachers. In California, this trend may be said to have begun in 1970 when the law establishing the state licensing agency required that 4 of 15 members of the board be classroom teachers or practicing administrators. Universities are currently represented only in an *ex officio* capacity (Bush & Enemark, 1975). A current proposal for reorganizing governance of teacher credentialing in California makes no mention of university involvement.

Recent changes in credential legislation in California suggest still further movement in this direction. The same weight is now given to inservice education provided by the school district as to education provided in university courses as a means to credential renewal.

Most significantly, legislation has created an alternative to earning a credential through an approved program in which professional education is entirely based in the schools.

The Teacher-Trainee Program established by the Hughes-Hart School Reform Act of 1983 permits a person who has a baccalaureate degree and can pass the state basic skills examination to earn a permanent credential entirely through a program developed by a school district and supervised by public school personnel. And so the approved program concept is simply extended outside the university to a district, although fewer restrictions exist for the school district than for universities.

In many ways, these shifts in the locus of legal responsibility for education and credentialing make formal what has been occurring for a long time in teacher education. Universities have relied on the schools and on classroom teachers to provide teacher education through programs of practice teaching. And experienced teachers have always continued the education of beginning teachers in countless ways. What is new is the effort to have practitioners take part in the formal education of entrants as a step toward making teaching more a profession.

Such trends pushed to their logical conclusion suggest that soon teacher education may not be a responsibility of the university at all, at least in the sense of its offering an approved program as a means to certification. But examinations do not build competence or capacity; they seek only to determine it. Even if the states choose to take back from the university the responsibility to determine who can teach and to base it on performance on examinations, most people who become teachers will have a university education. And the people who educate candidates for those examinations will reside in the universities and will have tremendous influence on learning in schools because they will give prospective teachers a command of subjects and the fundamental grasp of the methods of inquiry in particular disciplines.

The school-sponsored certification approach also relies on the university to be responsible for the education of teachers. The university must still provide prospective teachers with the command not only of subjects and the fundamental grasp of methods of inquiry, but also with the foundations for the professional teacher education they are to apply in the schools.

It remains to be seen how many persons will choose the school-based programs or how many school districts will want to offer them. In California, only a few districts have teacher trainee programs, and few students appear to be taking advantage of them. Most prospective teachers appear to want the formal study of the social and psychological forces that affect the learning of children and youth, and they want the application of formal study to teaching found in courses in professional education. Most are no more anxious to stand in front of a classroom of 30 or so 13 year-olds with a wide spectrum of intellectual ability, motivation, and socio-economic backgrounds with no formal preparation to teach than they would be to perform brain surgery after having been operated on themselves or having watched someone else do it.

So it may be that the trend away from formal, legal university responsibility will heighten the informal, ethical responsibility of the university faculty—those who teach general education courses, advanced courses in the arts and sciences, as well as those in the professional teacher education courses—to see that the instruction provided prospective teachers is of the highest quality. It may be that the perceived lack of relationship between the professional education curriculum and the arts and sciences curriculum contributed to the drift away from the states giving the university legal responsibility for certification.

Let us now consider teacher education as an all-university responsibility in the context of the history of teacher education. Indeed, the phrase has a familiar ring to it. James Bryant Conant, a former president of Harvard, made that a theme of his 1963 Carnegie Report, *The Education of American Teachers.* Conant assigned the locus of responsibility for teacher education to all members of the university faculty, not just those who taught courses in professional education. In doing so, he sought to moderate the quarrel between the arts and sciences faculty and the professional education faculty.

Conant observed that arts and sciences faculty had exhibited little concern for the public schools and even less for the preparation of teachers, actually resenting state requirements that led students to take courses in professional education as the basis for earning a credential. Having not had formal preparation to teach themselves and not seeing the difference between knowing chemistry and teaching it to high school students, they saw such courses as worthless. In contrast, Conant noted, professional teacher educators who had spent their careers exploring the science and art of teaching and creating a literature around it believed deeply in the need for formal preparation for teachers and had worked closely with state certification agencies to see that it was required (Conant, 1963).

Conant sought to bring the warring factions together through action by both administrators and trustees. He called for the university president, on behalf of the entire faculty, to certify that the prospective teacher is adequately prepared to teach in a specific field. He urged that trustees insist on continuing, effective all-university or interdepartmental approaches to the education of teachers, and that degree requirements for future teachers be justified in terms of breadth of exposure in key academic subjects.

Historians of teacher education attribute swings of the pendulum toward or away from the all-university emphasis in teacher education to the nature of the prevailing public attitude toward the schools and toward the perceived shortcomings of teachers. Writing in 1975, Paul Woodring observed that when the public believes that the failure to educate children and youth can be traced to the teacher's lack of knowledge of the subjects taught, then stress is placed on preparation in the arts and sciences and the tendency is to expand the preparation period. When the public believes that the failure of the schools to educate children and youth can be traced to the teachers' lack of skill in teaching, as it did in the 1960s (John Holt was the leading spokesperson), then stress is placed on preparation in pedagogy (Woodring, 1975).

The concerns over academic preparation of teachers that give rise to Conant's recommendations began first in the post-war malaise of the early 1950s and were, of course, intensified by the U.S. response to Sputnik. Looking back, Woodring detects a renewed sense of common purpose in the preparation of teachers among the faculty of the university in the late 1950s and early 1960s that grew first out of public concern, then out of a concern of arts and sciences faculty about teacher preparation. Some key conferences brought arts and sciences faculty together with professional teacher educators. The result was general agreement that the preparation period should be extended to five years. But this sense of common purpose, Woodring argues, was again lost during the late 1960s and early 1970s as the demand for teachers declined. Arts and sciences faculty, he notes, began to lose interest in teacher preparation.

Others cite more practical reasons for the fading sense of a common purpose between arts and science and professional education faculty. Reporting on the Ford Foundation's grants for innovations in teacher education, Jim Stone indicated that at the Carnegie Institute of Technology arts and sciences faculty became very interested in teacher education courses, but found demands on their time more than they could reasonably contribute. Feelings about propriety, as well, were at times an obstacle, John Goodlad reported. From his experience in a project at UCLA, he concluded that university faculty as a whole were skeptical that involvement of arts and science faculties both with prospective teachers and with the precollege curriculum was appropriate for university faculty. However, the University refused to reward its faculty for such expenditures of energy, and the University's efforts to work with the school, if still continued were shifted to the periphery (Goodlad, 1965).

This historical context should persuade us that our discussion of teacher education as an all-university responsibility is a timely one. Indeed, one could safely, or perhaps cynically, conclude that once again the pendulum has swung.

There is clearly public concern over the qualifications of teachers to teach academic subjects. And there is renewed attention from the arts and sciences faculty to the public schools and growing interest in the university's responsibility as a whole for the education of teachers. At least in California, interest in teacher education has heightened with the concern over the poor preparation of entering students for college. It was an historic event for California when in 1983 the faculties of the 9 campuses of the University of California, the 19 campuses of the California State University, and the 106 community colleges joined together to define the competencies necessary to succeed in college in writing and mathematics. They are working to define others. Increasing numbers of university faculty are devoting time to improving the schools through academic partnership programs supported in large measure up until recently by the universities' own funds.

Increasingly the responsibility for teacher education is being interpreted as one of the entire university. A 1983 report in the CSU, *Exellence in Professional Education*, reaffirmed longtime policy of the CSU Board of Trustees that teacher education is an all-university responsibility and urged that campus decision-making processes about teacher education reflect this orientation.

The Chancellor's Advisory Committee on Excellence in Professional Education went further. They recommended that each president convene a university-wide council on teacher education whose responsibility it is to foster a greater sense of common purpose about teacher education among faculty. The recent Education Review in the University of California chaired by John Goodlad contains recommendations for integrating the diverse but essential components of teacher education and of rewarding a faculty member—in whatever discipline—who devotes time creatively to teacher education and to school improvements.

The approach to the growing recognition about the entire university's responsibility for teacher education appears to be taking two forms. The one, emphasizing the responsibility of the university, calls for clear separation of the academic preparation of teachers in order to make arts and sciences faculties more accountable. The second—the one implicit in Conant's proposals—calls for closer integration of preparation through cooperation of arts and sciences faculty and professional education faculty and for students' learning experiences in the major field of study to be concurrent with their beginning professional teacher education.

Hendrik Gideonse, Dean of the School of Education at the University of Cincinnati, is a spokesman for the first approach to the all-university responsibility. He argues for "a clearer line between the liberal-education/content-area responsibilities of preparing teachers and the professional component of their training" (Gideonse, 1982, p. 17) as a means of making arts and sciences faculty more accountable and of reversing the apparent erosion in the definition, design, and curricular standards in the baccalaureate. Such arrangement, Gideonse observes, also has the advantage of permitting greater depth and breadth in professional education. Although Gideonse does not speak much to issues of administrative organization, his allusion to the evolution of medical schools hints at the revolution teacher education is about to undergo on the campus. The model for the school of education he appears to have in mind is the medical school or law school in which the baccalaureate degree is at once a sequence of courses leading to professional education and a screening device for students seeking admission.

The second or integrative vision of teacher education is implicit in Conant's recommendations. It is based on the internal logic of teacher preparation. Stated simply, what one teaches and how one teaches are fundamentally related. The subjects taught to prospective teachers by the arts and sciences faculty are more than the foundation, more than building blocks for professional education. The courses about human learning and the social and psychological forces that affect it as well as those in methods of teaching and their appropriateness for particular age groups and particular types of learners *coexist* in a special way with those in subjects to be taught in the schools in the education of teachers. To use Conant's example, the study of chemistry and teaching chemistry to high school students are fundamentally related. If there is no attempt to integrate the courses in subjects taught in the schools and study in professional education, then the relationship between the various aspects of preparation of a teacher is lost.

Such integration of arts and sciences and professional teacher education can probably only be achieved by the acceptance of the arts and sciences faculty and the professional teacher education faculty of their mutual responsibility. Elaborate curricular structures will not work if faculty, themselves, are not committed to such a concept of teacher education. But can that commitment be brought about?

Spokespersons for the concept of the all-university responsibility for teacher education have identified some avenues to it. Paul Woodring has told presidents of state universities and colleges to use their presidencies as Theodore Roosevelt did his, as "bully pulpits" from which to proclaim the need for attention to teacher education. And university presidents are beginning to do just that. But exhortation is probably not enough.

University leadership will need to challenge openly the widely held view in the university that elementary and secondary school teaching is a second-rate profession only for second-rate students. It will have to take the lead in encouraging faculty to advise good students to enter teaching. University leadership will need to find structural means to integrate the arts and sciences with professional education and to increase, as Dean Gifford at Berkeley has proposed, the interaction of the two so that the entire university is the locus for studies in education (Gifford, 1984).

Conant's structural tool was a joint university committee (Conant, 1963). Now many universities have such committees—most established long ago. Some are dormant and largely ceremonial. Some others are so active that they choke effective progress in professional teacher education. In these extreme cases, the dean or director of the school or program of teacher education answers to a committee representing faculty from throughout the university who may or may not place the interests of teacher education above parochial departmental concerns.

Too often, the programs developed by committees mirror the competing, often contradictory aims of various committee members. As membership changes over time, the programs change, but with little real development. The committee creation of so-called interdisciplinary majors more often reflects separate parts than any cohesive avowal of the interrelatedness of knowledge. Still, a faculty committee is healthy and valuable in keeping a focus on teacher education as an all-university responsibility if its members value teacher education and bring perspectives from departments whose job it is to provide concentration in subjects and common intellectual experiences together with professional teacher educators. Unfortunately, even under such positive conditions, the likelihood of a committee successfully managing a program is not great.

More will be needed to integrate professional teacher education with undergraduate preparation and to keep the responsibility for teacher education in the minds of the faculty. First, might be an attempt at consensus—among professional teacher educators and arts and sciences faculty about the common body of skills and knowledge needed for success as a teacher. Faculties need to explore the relationship between and among general education, concentration in a field of study, certain sequential courses in the social sciences that should be prerequisites to professional education, and teacher education courses. Once relationships are defined and responsibilities assigned, program review processes should be structured to evaluate effectiveness, not just of sequential preparation, but of integration.

Second, collaboration between professional teacher education faculty and arts and sciences faculty must occur in the evaluation of students for admission to teacher education. Professional teacher education faculty must demand that arts and sciences faculty evaluate the extent to which such students share common intellectual experiences, have a command of the subject, and have the ability to communicate knowledge of it. And professional teacher education faculty must be willing to reject students judged not to meet this criteria.

Third, social and fiscal incentives within the university must be created to attract and reward those arts and science faculty and those teacher education faculty who work to integrate these programs. Universities may need to create a teacher education faculty much as a graduate faculty is appointed from among the general faculty for doctoral programs at many universities. The members of this faculty drawn from arts and sciences and professional teacher education would have special teaching responsibilities. They could teach adjunct courses within the major that relate the university subjects to subjects taught to children and youth or teach sections of courses for prospective teachers. They might be designated as advisors of potential teachers in selection of general education courses or courses in the major. Workload assignments should be adjusted to reflect these extra demands on faculty. Another approach, though not necessarily mutually exclusive of this, is simultaneous appointment to the arts and sciences faculty and to the professional teacher education faculty with the requirement for frequent participation in teaching both curricula.

Finally, making teacher education an all-university responsibility will require a broader concept of the role of dean or director of the School of Education. He or she should be seen not just as presiding over the professional education faculty, but as responsible for integrating the arts and sciences faculty and the teacher education faculty. With such responsibility must go the power to provide incentives, to make decisions about who among the arts and sciences faculty will participate directly in teacher education and who will not. Given the heavy responsibility for contact with local schools already placed on deans and directors of education, senior administrators must recognize the need for additional support positions to provide liaison with the public schools.

In conclusion, the public concern over academic achievement of students and the ability of teachers has produced a flux in teacher education that may serve the university and the public well. Indeed, this new call for excellence in education should be viewed as an opportunity, and we in the university should not be defensive in the face of the current, sometimes critical, attention. The atmosphere created by public questioning has led us to be introspective; and for the most part, this self-examination has kindled renewed interest and commitment on the part of all faculty to the education of prospective teachers.

The challenge exists to channel this interest so that substantial improvements in integrating the purpose and content of teacher education into an all-university responsibility of excellent education. There are significant indications that faculty from education, arts and sciences, and academic leaders are seeking ways to remold this role of the university for teacher education into an enduring one. In twenty or thirty years when teacher education is revisited and reexamined, and it will be, just as general education is periodically revisited, we must not find ourselves just where we are today.

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# Section Two

# Reform Efforts

For many, the response to the demands for change in teacher education has been one of denial. Some implicitly suggest that teacher education just is not as bad as the critics claim. Though they admit that it is less than perfect, defenders of the status quo point to the myriad social and economic conditions that make "real" professional education an impossibility. Teacher education is, after all, underfunded, and teacher educators are overworked. Indeed, the practical realities of daily academic life make it quite difficult for teacher educators to engage in the types of activities necessary for effective teaching. Schwebel (1985) writes that education faculty (EF) members have less time than do regular faculty to write and do research and are required to devote greater amounts of time to paper work and administrative tasks (33% for EF and 14% for other faculty). Schwebel concludes: "Combining the unfavorable faculty/student ratio ... with this administrative burden, we should not be at all surprised to find lower productivity of knowledge" (p. 4), and, one could add, lower effectiveness accomplishing program goals.

Realizing that modest reforms are insufficient, other educators and noneducators have called for massive changes in the way teachers are prepared. The "new" designs may take many forms, including the creation of alternative routes to certification that enable prospective teachers to bypass formal training altogether. The reforms have occurred at both an institutional and state-wide level, and the reforms described in the Commission papers, Chapters 4 through 6, reflect dramatic changes in preparation practices (at least in the structure of teacher education programming), with shifts from 4- to 5- year programs. Indeed, it is the structural dimension, rather than the curriculum content, that appears to dominate the descriptions by the authors.

But does more preparation suggest the possibility of better teacher education? In a rather oblique fashion, the answer provided by Andrew and Scannell is "yes." Both suggest that more time is needed to equip teachers with the knowledge and skills they need for teaching. Each also recognizes the problems with increasing current formalized preparation.

The Andrew chapter is an important contribution to the discussion because of the longevity of the University of New Hampshire's 5-year program. Andrew writes that in 1973 a 50% drop in enrollment was predicted at the University of New Hampshire due to the switch from a 4- to 5- year program. Indeed, the initial student response was just as Andrew and his colleagues predicted. But since that time, there has been a steady increase in 5-year students, a circumstance attributable, argues Andrew, "to the strong appeal of a program with unusually high standards and a reputation for high quality instruction."

The components of the University of New Hampshire's 5-year program are not unusual. For example, the emphasis on exploring teaching is typical of initial phase work in teacher education programs. Somewhat unique is the offer of individual choice in professional courses. Andrew argues that giving choice of coursework increases the chance that students will see their courses as relevant. Regrettably, it also increases the likelihood that students will take courses geared to their strengths rather than to their weaknesses.

Of particular interest in the Andrew chapter are the basic assumptions of the UNH planning group. The planners predicated the program's design on several practices that have subsequently become prevalent in other states and institutions. One example is the requirement that prospective teachers have curriculum depth in an academic major. Another illustration is the increased emphasis on clinical experiences, which provide for gradual introduction into teaching responsibilities. The clinical settings engender greater control than do field experiences and permit enhanced integration of theory and practice. Finally, Andrew clearly communicates that professional education is a life-long process. Enabling teacher growth requires extending teacher education throughout a teacher's career. The only way to achieve such a condition is to foster autonomy of teaching styles and to provide broader perspectives vis-a-vis alternatives in education.

Scannell describes the process of change at the University of Kansas. Clearly change is a process that requires thought, patience, and effort. And changing teacher education is not something that can be accomplished in isolation. Institutions desiring to change must, at the very least, assiduously study program goals and scrutinize the impact of changes on schools, school districts, and student enrollments. The change process is dynamic and the outcomes are often uncertain. Change, in essence, entails cost, both to personnel and to program traditions.

A tacit message of the Scannell chapter is that change is difficult and makes many of the key program actors vulnerable. However, change that is calculated, that entails systematic planning, and that produces involvement of a wide variety of significant others can engender an atmosphere of growth.

With 17% of the teacher training institutions preparing over 50% of the teachers (Haberman, 1984), not many institutions have to redesign their programs for there to occur a dramatic impact on the culture of teaching. But changing that culture will necessitate changes in the attitudes of employers (Are better prepared teachers worth the extra pay that may be demanded?) and of faculty members responsible for teacher preparation. This is not surprising. Indeed, Scannell describes how, at the abstract level, faculty support for change was almost unanimous, but when decisions became tougher and necessitated modifications to extant systems, the opposition became more pronounced and obstinate.

Compromise is a fundamental element in the change process. No new program will be conceptually pure or without flaw. The optimistic message of Scannell is that change is possible, even in entrenched systems where self-interests are dominant and legislative mandates circumscribe program designs.

The Saunders chapter highlights how state boards of education (and legislatures) have become involved in the reform business, often without consulting teacher educators with regard to recommended changes. Whereas Andrew and Scannell discuss institutional reform, Saunders traces reform on a broader, statewide basis. In institutional reform, teacher educators are active participants who consult others but who, nevertheless, set the direction and tone of recommended changes. In state-wide reform efforts, teacher educators are relegated to more passive roles. They find themselves reacting to, rather than designing, the course of change.

Unlike the institutional efforts, where individuals have specific concerns and where they can exercise maximum control, the state-wide efforts such as Tennessee's have entailed a reflexive response to the national preoccupation with excellence. The case in Tennessee is paradigmatic of what happens when educational issues become a part of political agendas. Teacher education institutions are vulnerable entities. They lack the "numbers" and the constituents to become a significant political force. Given such a reality, the need among teacher educators for collaboration and political acumen becomes even more imperative.

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# IV

# Restructuring Teacher Education: The University of New Hampshire's Five-Year Program

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## PREFACE: THE CHALLENGE FACING TEACHER EDUCATION

The challenge for teacher education in the 1980s is the same challenge that has always faced teacher education: to provide a sufficient number of good teachers for the nation's classrooms. This is not a trivial challenge. The degree to which we succeed in meeting this challenge will dictate the success of our nation's educational system.

Good teachers are at the heart of good schooling. The formal process of schooling cannot be effectively assumed by technology. Good teaching is not a set of clearly definable and relatively simple skills, transferable from one learning situation to another. Good teaching cannot be programmed. And, good teaching cannot simply emerge from any warm body we happen to find for the classroom.

To produce better teachers is to proportionately produce better education. Of course, teacher educators are not solely responsible for this challenge. We are very familiar with the need to improve the financial rewards for teachers, the working conditions, career opportunities, and the image and status of teaching. We should all work toward these crucial improvements. We must not use them as an excuse to do nothing about teacher education. There is much that teacher educators can do to produce more good teachers.

Several factors recently have helped us to see the challenge more clearly. First, there has been a heightened public dissatisfaction with educational institutions. Second, there has been a dramatic decrease in numbers of young people choosing to pursue a career in teaching. Third, there has been a significant decline in the academic ability of those young people who are choosing to teach. (Unfortunately, the more academically able are leaving the teaching talent pool.)

The search for solutions, spurred by myriad national reports on education, has focused attention on the preparation of teachers as one possible cause for the perceived inadequacy of schools. Teacher educators are once again embarrassed by the all-too-familiar criticism and are obliged to look more closely at their program. Perhaps this time the pressures for change will persist until significant restructuring of teacher education is achieved; perhaps not. We are adept at sandbagging. We form tediously slow committees to study the issues until our senses are dulled into forgetting or gladly forfeiting our charge. We put in place new standards that give the appearance of progress, or develop exit tests that appear to prove competency. We develop new sounding versions of old methods, or proclaim significant new additions to our "knowledge base" to convince each other that change is occurring.

The basic problems of teacher education are not new. They are the same ones addressed in the late 1960s in restructuring our program at the University of New Hampshire. The underlying weaknesses are so basic, in fact, that it is painful to make them explicit. Yet we must start here. Simply put, the basic weaknesses involve acceptance of a second rate talent pool, a limited definition of good teaching, a narrow view of the teacher's role, and the dogged protectionism of teacher preparation practices in the face of persistent and consistent criticism.

## Accepting A Second Rate Talent Pool

We as teacher educators seemingly accept that few academically able students will go into teaching. In so doing, we accept that second rate status of teachers in our society and perpetuate our own second rate status in the academic world. We have a self-image problem. To improve this image we must believe that teaching deserves a better than average slice of our national talent pool and thereby decisively act to get our fair share of that talent. To do this we must actively recruit good students from our high schools and from our college populations. We must also have programs and standards that attract the better students.

The problem of the status for teacher education does not exist only in each institution that prepares teachers, it exists in those that do not, as well. Indeed, the diminished image of teachers and teacher education is most extreme in those elite institutions with the top of the college talent pool that prepare no teachers at all. If we look at the distribution of talent throughout our institutions of higher education and compare that with the distribution of teachers being prepared, we are made painfully aware of the imbalance and of the obvious fact that the problem is not how many institutions prepare teachers, but rather which ones prepare how many. In point of fact, those institutions drawing the best of the college talent pool and preparing few or no teachers are shirking their social responsibility. While they could contribute substantially to the solution of the teacher quality issue, they are instead contributing to the problem.

Some teacher educators have recently expressed alarm that the number of colleges and universities preparing teachers increased during the 1970s while total enrollments in teacher education declined. This is not necessarily an undesirable situation. We must convince those institutions with a select talent pool that offering opportunities to prepare to teach in our nation's schools is not beneath them. Many of our "best and brightest" young people who attend these institutions have a strong desire to make a social contribution. We must promote teaching as a viable and rewarding option for these people.

We must accept as our challenge the improvement of the talent pool for teacher education. The emphasis should be on getting more good people in, not on keeping a few weak candidates out.

### Limited Definition of Good Teaching

Teacher educators have focused their research and their practice on too narrow a vision of what a good teacher is. We have concentrated on the contributory conditions for good teaching while neglecting the necessary conditions. While we know there are numerous effective teaching styles and effective teachers, we also know that there are some basic qualities or conditions of good teaching common to most good teachers. These basic qualities, the necessary conditions of good teaching, have received too little attention in our discussions of teacher education. This may be because we do not believe that there is sufficient agreement as to these basic and necessary conditions, or our neglect may reflect a belief that these qualities are beyond our influence as teacher educators. In either case, we have largely ignored the basic and necessary conditions of good teaching.

We have focused most of our scholarship and our practice on achieving a scientific definition of teaching competencies and on seeking out correlations between specific teaching practices and student performance. While these efforts have been helpful in slowly building a scientific knowledge base regarding teaching, they have restricted our focus to those aspects that define and explain only a small part of good teaching. This narrowness is partly due to our academic interest in pedagogy, our fascination with technique, the predominance of behavioral psychology in education, and our quest for scientific credibility. In the search for specificity, we have forgotten the forest while seeking the identity of the trees.

To regain our perspective and to identify the necessary conditions of good teaching, let us recognize the issue from the point of view of parents and citizens. What do they want from a good teacher? Recent national discussions have clarified this. Above all, parents and citizens want teachers to effectively teach basic academic skills. Obviously good teachers must have good academic skills; we can expect that most good teachers will have been good students themselves.

Parents and citizens want teachers to teach the essentials of their fields, not to clutter our children's minds with the trivial. Good teachers need to know what they are teaching. The wider and deeper their knowledge, the better. Simple, clear explanations come from the richest and clearest knowledge of principles. The ability to provide the right illustrations to motivate and illuminate understanding comes from a breadth of knowledge that provides the teacher with many examples. Obviously, good teachers must know their fields well.

Finally, parents and citizens seem to want teachers to teach children to think critically and creatively, analytically and intuitively. The ability to teach these higher level processes of disciplined thinking comes from knowing those processes and demonstrating them. We can expect that good teachers will have experienced these processes in their own education.

These desired abilities require that we find prospective teachers in the upper half of the national college population. "Good" is defined in relation to the whole. We cannot continue to draw teachers from the bottom half of our college population and still meet the challenge of producing enough good teachers for the nation's classrooms.

To further identify necessary conditions of good teaching, we can look to the client population, the students themselves. What do students want from a good teacher? The evidence from studies of students' perceptions is remarkably persistent.

They want teachers who communicate effectively, who can recognize the level of the students' understanding, and who can explain things well. They desire good teachers who know their field intimately.

They want teachers who have a persistent, positive attitude toward children and learning. From this attitude comes qualities students universally recognize in good teachers: enthusiasm for learning, liking students, and patience. As classroom observers, we see these positive attitudes of our good teachers emerge in the creating of an unmistakable ambience in the classroom, a feeling tone of mutual interpersonal respect mixed with a respect for the learning process.

In addition to the above, let us look at the most basic things we as professionals know about good teachers. What is it that allows us to recognize a good teacher in the classroom or even a potentially good teacher in that first classroom encounter of a "pre-professional teaching experience"? Above all, it is judgment. We can define this as ability to perceive all that is relevant and irrelevant in the chaos of the classroom and to make effective decisions about human interaction, discipline, content and teaching methods, decisions that often vary for each student. Elliot Eisner (1983) describes well the interactive judgment of the teacher.

> The teacher reads the qualitative cues of the situation as it unfolds and thinks on her feet, in many cases like a stand-up comedian. Reflection is not absent, theory is not irrelevant, even research conclusions might be considered, but they provide guidance, not direction. They are more in the background than in the forefront. (p. 10)

Certainly teachers continually improve their classroom judgment through experience. Yet this ability to make decisions in the classroom seems quite evident when we first observe college students in an exploratory field experience.

Good academic skills, breadth and depth of knowledge, ability to communicate well, a positive attitude toward children and learning, and good judgment are necessary conditions of good teaching. While we may assist in the development and appropriate use of these qualities in the context of teaching, they are qualities that are generally evident in prospective teachers independent of our role as teacher educators. Therefore, a significant part of the challenge to teacher educators (providing good teachers for the nation's classrooms) is met by finding the right people for our programs.

Our first course of action is recruitment. We must concentrate on three things: (a) making our program attractive to the people we seek (an indirect form of recruitment); (b) setting admissions standards and procedures that effectively cause self-selection of the kind of people we want; and (c) recruiting outstanding students. We will discuss these three requirements later in the context of the Five-Year Program at the University of New Hampshire.

## Narrow View of Teachers' Role

While narrowness in our definition of good teaching has caused us to overlook certain basic and necessary characteristics of good teachers, it has also caused us to narrowly define the teacher's role in the entire educational enterprise. This may be a reflection of our acceptance of a less than adequate talent pool and a deep seated lack of faith in teacher competence. If so, these attitudes can no longer be tolerated. Acquiescence to a limited view of teacher competency has caused us to prepare teachers only as classroom managers who facilitate the transfer of curriculum to students. We have not considered the role of teachers as educational decision-makers.

Good teachers are in the best position to make essential educational decisions about curriculum and even about budget and staff. We know from recent studies of teacher dissatisfaction that the lack of power and responsibility for teachers in educational decision making is a critical factor. Yet we have seen little attention paid to developing or recognizing leadership and decision-making skills in our preservice teacher education programs.

Teacher leadership appears as one of the central objectives in the development of the Five-Year Program at the University of New Hampshire. Indeed, the major description of the philosophy and substance of the University of New Hampshire's program, published in 1974, was titled *Teacher Leadership: A Model for Change* (Andrew, 1974, p. 2). This monograph developed the concept that good teachers must have a major role in educational decision making. Specifically, teachers should be expected to play a major role in the preservice instruction of teachers, to assist with continued growth of inservice teachers, and to take the initiative in curriculum change.

Of course, beginning teachers should first attend to mastering the art and craft of teaching, but the essential tools and attitudes for educational decision making provide a basis for both an effective teaching style and a leadership role in the schools. Until we believe in teacher competence, and therefore prepare teachers for leadership roles and give teachers more power and responsibility in the schools, we will not be very successful in recruiting or retaining the "best and brightest."

## Teacher Educators' Resistance to Change

While a diminished talent pool and a narrowed definition of good teaching and the teacher's role have hindered the restructuring of teacher education, so has another major weakness: The teacher educator's resistance to change. Teacher educators have long ignored the following persistent criticisms from students, the public, and a few colleagues:

1. That the large number of required education courses in the undergraduate years take students away from gaining depth in the academic disciplines and achieving a strong general education.

2. That too many education courses appear to be irrelevant and/or trivial.
3. That the best way to learn about teaching is from actual classroom experience and by the examination of that experience with the help of skilled analysts and practitioners. There is too little of this "practical" experience in teacher education programs.
4. That teacher educators and teacher education programs remain too aloof from schools. There needs to be more of a partnership providing better programs and greater acceptance of the programs and their products, i.e., the beginning teachers.

It was with these criticisms in mind and with a broad definition of good teaching emphasizing judgment and leadership that we undertook to restructure teacher education at the University of New Hampshire. The following discussion will review our program development, program structure, and results.

## RESTRUCTURING TEACHER EDUCATION AT THE UNIVERSITY OF NEW HAMPSHIRE: THE PROCESS

### The Process of Change at the University of New Hampshire

In 1969 a general model for teacher development was discussed by the Department of Education of the University of New Hampshire. Among its major emphases, the model called for the elimination of education majors (for elementary teachers), an integration of undergraduate and graduate study, a full year internship, a total revision of educational foundations courses, and a sharing of power with other agencies in the planning and operation of teacher education.

Numerous meetings with faculty, senior students, and school personnel led to approval of the general teacher education model in January of 1971 and to agreement that further planning should be undertaken by a cooperative agency representing groups most directly involved with public school education in the state. Utilizing small grants from the New England Program in Teacher Education and from Title III, a Cooperative Planning Committee convened to continue the planning process.

The planning committee modified and approved the general model for preservice-inservice staff development. It initiated eight task forces made up of students in teacher education programs and of representatives of all participating agencies. These task forces planned the details of a new approach for preservice and inservice teacher education. Planning was completed in April of 1972. Over 100 people representing a variety of agencies were included in the planning process.

Following completion of the planning phase, the Central Planning Committee and Task Forces were dissolved and replaced by an Advisory Board. Its immediate focus would be on implementing certain phases of inservice training as developed in the plan. The preservice portion of the program would require acceptance and implementation by college and university educators. The plan (in the form of a 70-page document) was then presented to the UNH Department of Education in May of 1972.

It took nearly a year to win approval of all necessary university groups. Actual program implementation began in June 1973.

### The Conditions Supporting Change, 1969–1973

Five factors appear to have been particularly relevant in supporting a major program change at the University of New Hampshire.

First, there was an initial model for a revised teacher education program, developed by the author, which took into account long-standing and well known criticisms of teacher education. The basic model was acceptable to university administrators, most university faculty, and representatives from the public schools. The model provided a starting point upon which a variety of people involved in the preparation of teachers could agree.

Second, the teacher education program at the University of New Hampshire was situated in a Department of Education in a College of Liberal Arts where it was equitably funded. Many teacher education activities were shared with "academic" departments. The Department of Education enjoyed reasonably good status in the college. Most academic departments strongly favored a move to a five-year program because it allowed more undergraduate time for general education and depth in the major. Dissenting departments were those with a number of their own courses devoted to teacher education at the undergraduate level (i.e., math education, music education, and physical education). These departments feared a loss of students.

Third, the university administration was willing to put more resources (or the same resources for fewer students) into a teacher education program they believed would produce better teachers.

Fourth, there was an increasing enrollment in the teacher education program and the beginning of oversupply was evident in many fields. Faculty members were feeling the pressure of too many students, and the job prospects for graduates were declining. A deliberate decrease in enrollment, therefore, seemed appropriate.

Fifth, the Department of Education was made up of several graduate programs in addition to teacher education. Those programs were enjoying growth and abundant federal funding. Most of the teacher education faculty also taught in these graduate programs, and the prospect of a serious drop in teacher education enrollment as a possible result of the five-year program was not terribly threatening.

## The Change Process in Retrospect

After almost 15 years, certain strengths and weaknesses of the change process are still evident.

A key factor was a well thought out plan to present as a starting point. Without it, support from administration and the synthesis of ideas from many diverse groups would have come much slower and perhaps would have been impossible. Much time was saved by having dealt with the familiar criticisms of teacher education beforehand (length of student teaching, clinical experience only at the end of the program, too little room in undergraduate years for general education, inadequate preparation in teaching subject fields, poor professional courses, etc.). When early discussions turned to these areas, many aired their pet peeves, agencies began blaming each other for problems, and productive planning was slowed. The ability to point to a plan that responded to traditional problems allowed the participants to put aside their complaints and to continue positive planning.

Much time was also saved by identifying crucial areas of professional knowledge to be taught under a flexible format that allowed for a variety of topics. This reduced the threat to education professors, who had less cause to fight for the ascendancy of their own particular areas of interest.

The involvement of persons who would be key to successful approval, implementation, and operation of the program was essential. For the most part, this was done, although omissions in one area may have created a later problem. Faculty members from several departments with a major investment in specialized four-year teacher preparation were left out of the planning process. Specifically, these were faculty from music, mathematics, and physical education. These departments had been opposed to the Five-Year Program from the beginning. They were left out of much of the planning process, and programs in music and physical education eventually were left out of the new plan. Students from these departments could elect the five-year program but were not required to do so.

Similar exceptions were made in home economics and occupational education, but many students from these programs were encouraged to pursue the Five-Year option. Music students were actively discouraged by their own music faculty from doing so. Perhaps a more active involvement of faculty from the most resistant departments could have produced more program support. Perhaps not.

Of course, the most important element in the change process was commitment: A sincere desire existed on the part of many people to achieve an improved teacher education program. This provided the persistance and enthusiasm necessary to see a participatory process of change through for a period of about five years.

### Conditions Supporting Change at the National Level—1984

Since 1969, when our planning process at UNH began, the essential challenge to teacher education—to prepare enough good teachers for national classrooms—has not changed. However, in several ways, factors supporting change are less advantageous now than in 1969. They include: (a) The numbers of students wishing to enter teaching is down; (b) The supply of new teachers as a percentage of demand for new teachers is down considerably; (c) The federal money directly available to institutions of higher education is less than it was in 1969; and (d) In 1969, many colleges of education and departments of education were in an expansion phase of adding staff and programs. Today, although a surprising number of new teacher education programs have appeared in the past six years, many programs in education have been cutting out programs, eliminating staff, and experiencing a steady decline in enrollment.

These conditions seem to demand a response, yet they create a situation that could be far more resistant to change than was the case in 1969. One of the essential reasons for resistance is the threat to jobs in teacher education. The threat is easy to understand. If we raise standards and select only students from the top half of our college population and if we extend programs (making them more expensive for students and for institutions), we may see a drastic decline in numbers of prospective teachers.

After discussing the structure of the Five-Year Teacher Education Program at the University of New Hampshire and its results to date, we will return to the issue of a national movement toward extended teacher education programs and its implications.

## STRUCTURE OF THE FIVE-YEAR PROGRAM

### Basic Assumptions

In 1984, the Five-Year Program at the University of New Hampshire has essentially the same structure outlined at the end of the planning process in 1972. In generating this structure, the planning group agreed to certain basic assumptions. Six of those assumptions were that:

1. A strong general education combined with depth in one's major field are prerequisite to good teaching.
2. The most effective way of learning about teaching is by integrating theory with practice. More clinical experiences and greater use of

practicing teachers in teacher education are seen as appropriate strategies.

3. Clinical experiences should provide a gradual introduction to full teaching responsibilities and should be available throughout the professional preparation program, not just at the end.
4. Certain general areas of professional training are important to all who teach. Many of the traditional divisions in teacher education are in large measure unwarranted and represent great duplication of effort.
5. Because of the many effective teaching styles and justifiable philosophies of education in which teaching styles are based, teacher development programs should provide a broad perspective of alternatives in education, fostering autonomy in choice of philosophy and development of personal teaching styles.
6. Learning about teaching should be a continual process, extending throughout a teacher's career. Teacher educators, school administrators, and certifying agencies should view this extended period as more important than preservice training and should devote proportionately more time to it (Andrew, 1974).

The group then developed a program that emerged as a five-year, integrated undergraduate-graduate course of study. It emphasizes a strong general education and depth in a major field. Students in the five-year program complete a bachelor's degree at the end of their fourth year. There are no undergraduate majors in education.

### Phase One: Exploring Teaching

During the student's undergraduate work, the initial phase of the teacher preparation program begins with early experience in the schools, where students work as aides or teaching assistants (Exploring Teaching). Generally, students take this course as sophomores. This initial phase provides students with an opportunity to explore various kinds of teaching tasks while participating in at least 65 hours of instructional activities with experienced teachers in the schools. The students also attend a weekly seminar that helps them make more realistic decisions about teaching as a career.

The field work emphasis is on participation rather than on observation. Students are encouraged to take on teaching tasks immediately. Seminars, which are limited to enrollments of 15 students and taught by full-time faculty, focus on topics such as the authority and modeling roles of teachers, community expectations placed on teachers, living on a teacher's salary, and the classroom teacher's role in helping children with special needs. Classroom teachers, school administrators, and other school personnel provide important input in field-based seminars. Student performance in Phase One weighs heavily in later selection procedures.

### Phase Two: Professional Coursework

The second phase of the program normally begins in the junior year and requires a minimum of four credits to be completed in each of four areas of study: Educational Structure and Change, Human Development and Learning, Alternative Teaching Models, and Alternative Perspectives on the Nature of Education. (A detailed rationale for the four major areas of preservice professional courses is developed in *Teacher Leadership: A Model for Change* [Andrew, 1974].) A variety of minicourses, some including experiences in local schools, is available in these required areas.

Working with their advisors, students develop highly individualized programs. Credits in these four areas may be taken at either the undergraduate or graduate level. This allows students to have greater flexibility in fulfilling the requirements of their major departments.

Candidates for elementary teaching must complete two additional courses in mathematics and a clinical course in fundamentals of reading instruction. These may also be taken at the undergraduate or graduate level.

**Offering Individual Choice within Content Areas.** Allowing a wide range of student choice in professional courses causes some concern that students will miss certain essential content. The justification for individual programming rests on four assumptions.

The first assumption is that students preparing to teach have different perceived needs and interests at different stages of development. Giving choices within important areas increases the chance that students will see their education coursework as relevant.

The second assumption is that one cannot expect preservice teachers to have dealt with everything they will need to know to be competent professionals. There are many areas of knowledge pertinent to becoming a good teacher. There is not time to "do it all," nor is there agreement on which knowledge is most critical. Much of the specialized preparation of teachers should be expected to take place during internship and in later years as "inservice" learning.

There is a tendency to expect beginning teachers to have every bit of specialized preparation that is peculiar to a specific job environment or that is a favorite of a particular administrator, education official, or professor. This unreasonable demand on preservice preparation is central to the dilemma facing teacher education today: the inability to balance strong academic preparation, subject field depth, and general education with adequate initial professional preparation.

We cannot do it all. Even in a five-year framework, which usually includes two summers of work beyond five academic years, we are increasingly constrained by a proliferation of specific professional requirements forced on us by national and state agencies. We are also continually faced with professors who want the number of credits of their courses to increase or for their course to be required.

The third assumption is that in-depth study of a limited topic is often the best way to teach general skills, attitudes, and concepts. Most of our options within the four professional areas are in-depth study of particular topics instead of broad, introductory "coverage" courses. In general, we believe that this approach to education is more effective because it gains student involvement; it provides substantive, in-depth learning; and it teaches the general skills and attitudes we feel are of primary importance. For example, students electing a two-credit course dealing with alternative perspectives on the nature of education, titled "Controversial Issues in Education," select current educational issues of concern to them, such as the exclusion of sex education in a local school, creationism and evolution in the curriculum, or school prayer. Students are required to do extensive library research on their topics (in groups) and to prepare arguments on all major points of view on the issue while being certain that the interests of all relevant parties are considered. The professor oversees and critiques the process and provides instruction on how to construct and assess arguments for various positions. Care is taken that students make connections between social and legal contexts and the educational issue at hand. Surely there are many other important controversial educational issues emerging today. Surely there will be many new ones in the future. Our concern is not which specific content students cover, but rather that they learn the skills and attitudes of thorough analysis, how to investigate all relevant points of view, and how to synthesize and create a well formed, personal position on educational issues.

The fourth assumption that justifies individual programming is that the use of a variety of subject matter options under each professional area allows the best use of faculty interests and strengths. Most teacher education faculty are able to identify subtopics within the four general professional areas that represent their current research interests and scholarly backgrounds. This keeps faculty enthusiasm for teaching in these basic areas high and helps to provide better teaching. This model also produces a strong correlation between official course descriptions and actual course content, a situation that seldom occurs with broad survey courses.

The success of the multi-option approach to professional course work is perhaps reflected in the consistently high student evaluations of these courses. A study in 1982–83 revealed that professional course instructors in teacher education at the University of New Hampshire received an average rating from students of 4.55 on a 5-point scale (5 being the highest rating). This course evaluation is done for all instructors at the University. The professional course instruction in education as a whole ranked on a par with the best teaching at the University, as perceived by students.

### Phase Three: Internship and Graduate Studies

The final phase of the preservice teacher education program consists of a year-long, post-baccalaureate internship as well as graduate study related to one's chosen area or level of teaching. Students usually spend one full academic year plus one or two summers completing Phase Three.

**Internship.** The year-long internship is the centerpiece of the Five-Year Program. The internship provides the principal instruction in "Teaching Methods." A full year of closely supervised internship offers the opportunity to integrate methods instruction with actual classroom experience. This format for instruction in methodology represents a firm and central commitment of the Five-Year Program. During the internship, methods instruction is the focus of the regular review of interns' lessons and their curricular plans by cooperating teachers and university supervisors. Methodology is the usual emphasis of bi-weekly supervisory conferences following observation of one or more class periods of teaching. At least one of these conferences is combined with analysis of a video tape of the intern's teaching.

Methodology is also the focus of some of the weekly intern seminars. These seminars' participants, usually involving a university supervisor and six interns, discuss common concerns, share successes, and suggest procedures for dealing with individual problems. Seminars are occasionally combined for large group meetings. An initial large group meeting includes cooperating teachers. A later group meeting focuses on development of resumés to be used in an Intern Yearbook, and on other matters relative to job seeking.

The success of the internship experience is closely tied to site selection. Placement is the result of a personalized process that begins in Semester One of the senior year. The Director of Field Experiences meets with each prospective intern and discusses placement possibilites, taking into account the intern's strengths, weaknesses, needs, and preferences. Several students will usually visit a particuair intern site, and placement decisions are much like hiring decisions. A successful placement requires mutual acceptance and concludes with a meeting of intern and cooperating teachers to discuss a preliminary working agreement. The school principal and university Director of Field Experiences often attend this meeting.

Second in importance to an appropriate intern site is the intense nature of university support and instruction provided to interns. Supervision in the University of New Hampshire Five-Year Program has evolved to a point that far exceeds the conventional model of autonomous university supervisors who make one to three visits during student teaching. Five-Year Program supervisors have relatively small teaching loads. Supervision of five or six interns is the equivalent of a one course teaching assignment. Supervisors are required to visit each intern a minimum of 12 times. The norm is a bi-weekly visit.

Supervisors meet weekly as a faculty subgroup. During these meetings, individual intern and common supervisory problems are discussed. Plans are coordinated for the weekly intern seminars, and large group meetings or group activities are developed. These meetings are chaired by the Director of Field Experiences.

**The Graduate Concentration.** The graduate program requires a 12-credit concentration and electives from a variety of University programs. Concentrations are offered in many areas of study. Preservice secondary teachers often choose concentrations in their major field. Several university departments are giving attention to selection of specific graduate courses most appropriate for each prospective teacher. Students pursuing concentrations in their subject area usually elect the Master of Arts in Teaching degree, although a few work toward a master's degree in the subject field of study.

Several concentrations are available in the seven graduate programs of the Department of Education. The most popular concentrations are in Reading/Writing, Special Education, and Early Childhood Education. Students choosing these concentrations work toward a Master's Degree in Education.

A minimum of 30 credit hours of graduate work plus a final project or thesis are required for the master's degree. A typical program includes the 12 credit internship, a 12 credit graduate specialization, 6 credits of electives, and a project. Students may obtain teacher certification before completing all requirements for the master's degree. About half complete the master's degree and certification requirements before entering teaching.

**Standards and Admissions Procedures.** There is open admission to Phase One, "Exploring Teaching." Initial screening is done at the end of Phase One with school personnel, University instructors, and students each having a vote on a student's continuation to Phase Two. Students doing poorly in "Exploring Teaching," based on the judgment of instructors and cooperating teachers, are counseled to seek alternative career plans. This counseling is usually persuasive. If it is not, and the student wishes to go on, he or she may be granted a second Exploring Teaching opportunity or may be dismissed from the program. The attrition rate after Phase One is approximately 40 percent.

Once in Phase Two, juniors, seniors or graduate students may choose from the four professional course areas. In consultation with an advisor, students may choose the course sequence and timetable that best fits their needs and interests. The typical student completes half of the required professional coursework as an undergraduate and half at the graduate level.

The second screening process takes place in the year prior to internship (early in the senior year). Considerable evidence is taken into account. The student must apply to the Graduate School and take the Graduate Record Examination. A teacher education committee then examines transcripts, grade point average, GRE scores, recommendations, and evidence from Education Department instructors plus the folder of papers and recommendations from Exploring Teaching.

The minimum for a regular graduate school admission recommendation consists of the following:

1. GPA—2.75 (on a 4.0 scale),
2. GRE—Sum of raw scores on the verbal and quantitative measures to be 900 or above,
3. Three strong letters of recommendation,
4. An undergraduate preparation appropriate for the intended area of certification, and
5. A positive recommendation from the Exploring Teaching experience.

The importance of direct evidence of teaching potential is clear from the following excerpt of the Teacher Education Admissions Policy:

> The Teacher Education faculty at the University of New Hampshire believes that direct evidence of teaching potential and evidence of appropriate interpersonal skills for successful teaching are essential criteria for admission to the final stages of the UNH Teacher Education Programs. Teaching potential is normally apparent by performance in Education 500. Thus, the Education 500 recommendations by the cooperating teachers in the school and by University faculty are considered seriously in all admissions decisions. We also believe that successful teachers must be able to communicate effectively with children and adults, have good listening skills, be sensitive to the needs of others, and be able to deal positively with children and adults. This collection of interpersonal skills is taken into account in admissions decisions. Evidence of this is gathered from Education 500, from contacts of University faculty with students, and from letters of recommendation required for admission to the five-year program. (Teacher Education Admissions Policy, 1984)

The average academic record of admitted students has been quite consistent over the past ten years. This information is made known to students, and most who are not close to this average do not apply.

## THE STUDENTS

### Enrollments

Switching from a four-year teacher education program to a five-year teacher education program requiring admission to Graduate School undoubtedly affects enrollment. In 1973 we predicted a 50% drop in enrollment. This is approximately what did occur. Of course, many unanticipated factors have influenced the number of students seeking careers in teaching over the past ten years, so it is difficult to ascertain the impact of the move to the Five-Year Program.

One interesting comparison is the change in numbers of five-year graduates compared to the number of four-year teacher education graduates at the University of New Hampshire. Four-year options have existed in the following areas: music, home economics, occupational education, and physical education. Enrollment trends are seen in Figure 1.

A clear and surprising trend is the steady increase in numbers of five-year graduates during a period of national decline in teacher education program enrollments generally. Until 1983, this trend proceeded without benefit of any direct recruitment efforts. The trend seems to be attributable in part to the strong appeal of a program with unusually high standards and a reputation for high quality instruction.

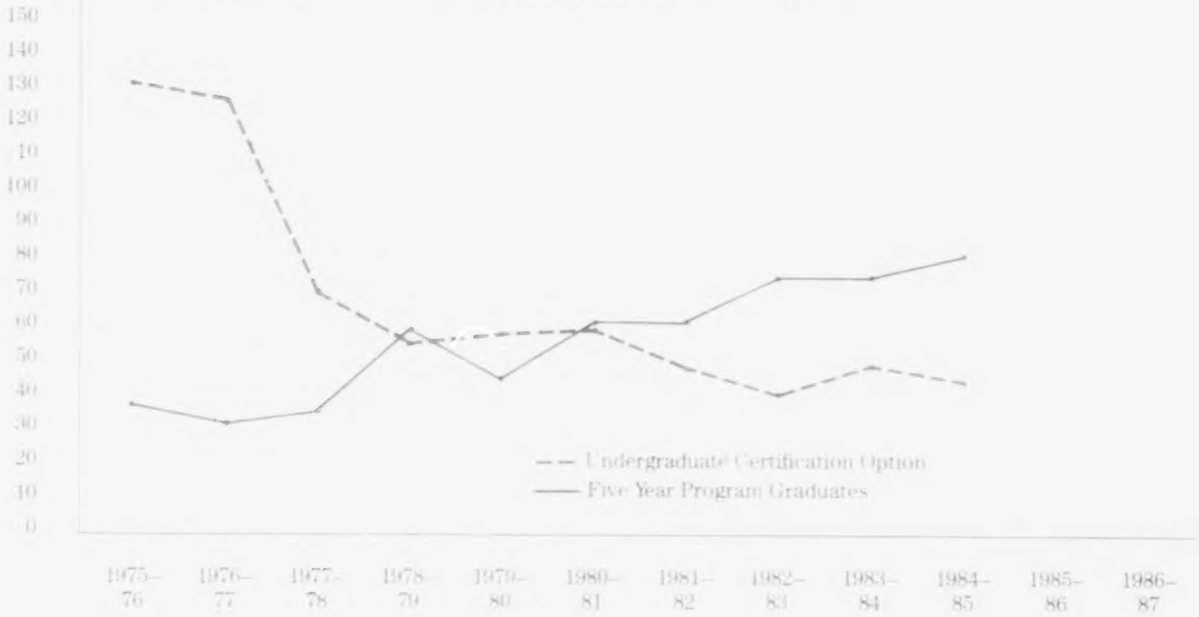
### Recruitment

We have recently begun more active recruitment procedures. Over the past year, several efforts have been initiated. They include the following:

1. **The Excellence in Teaching Scholarship Program.** This involves a major effort to raise private funds to endow four- and five-year scholarships of $2,000 per year for outstanding high school students who wish to pursue careers in teaching. Seniors nominated by their school principals must meet the following criteria: (a) a strong academic record that places them in the upper quarter of students admitted to the University of New Hampshire; (b) evidence of strong social commitment and interest in teaching; and (c) evidence of interpersonal skills appropriate for successful teaching, especially the ability to deal positively with others and to communicate effectively.

   The fund raising has just begun, and sufficient money is already

Figure 1
Enrollment Trends: University of New Hampshire



available to continuously fund one Excellence in Teaching Scholarship. Our goal is to fund ten new scholars each year.

2. **Positive Media Attention for the Program.** An effort has been made over the past year to promote positive news and radio releases on the teacher education effort at the University. Some favorable national media attention has augmented this effort.
3. **Urging University Faculty to Recruit Good Students for Teaching.** A letter was sent to all university faculty describing the current national problem with regard to the supply of good teachers. Faculty members were urged to help in promoting teaching as a positive career option.
4. **Direct Contact with Academically Talented High School Students.** In 1984, a member of the teacher education faculty, using 11 interns from teacher education conducted a year-long program for 115 of the state's gifted high school students. One discussion topic focused directly on education in the future and the need for good teachers (SEARCH Program Presentation, October 24, 1984).
5. **Contact with High School Guidance Counselors.** Meetings at the University and in the state's high schools have been arranged, and brochures are being developed describing options available for teacher preparation.
6. **Workshops with Elementary and Secondary Teachers and Administrators.** Meetings with the state's teachers and administrators are being arranged to emphasize the importance of recruiting our best high school students for teaching.

It is too early to evaluate the impact of these measures, but we are encouraged by a dramatic increase in enrollment in the introductory Education 500 course in teacher education (see Figure 2).

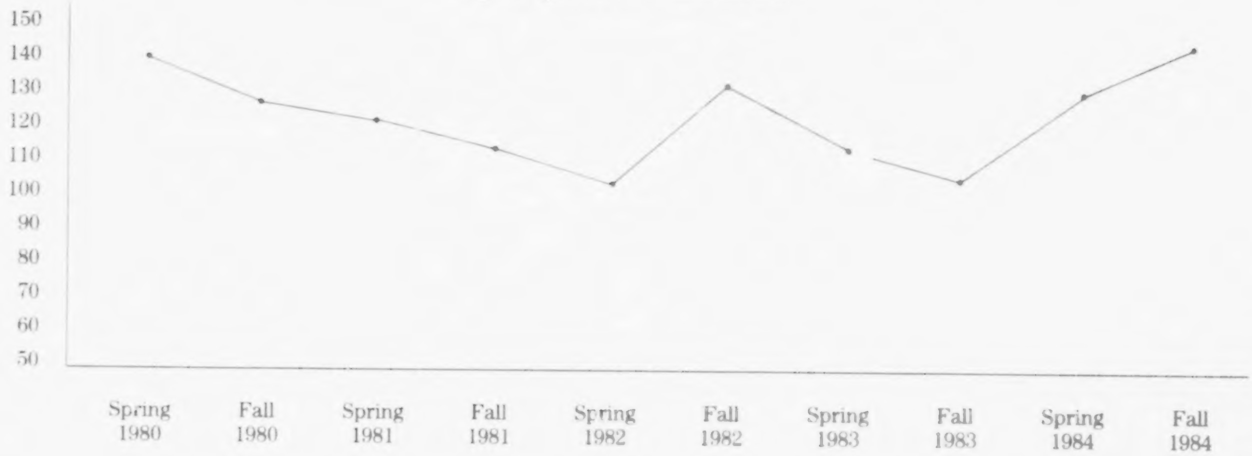
### Academic Characteristics

The academic characteristics of students in the five-year program is one of the strongest indications of program success.

Students admitted to the final phase of the program over the past ten years have maintained an undergraduate grade point average of about 3.1 on a 4.0 scale. There has been little year-to-year variation (see Figure 3). This compares to a University grade point average of approximately 2.8 for graduating seniors (a 2.0 is required for graduation), and a Graduate School admissions grade point average of 3.1 for all graduate programs of the University.

During the past seven-year period the Graduate Record Examination scores of all students admitted to Phase Three of the Five Year Program have averaged 516 on the verbal aptitude test and 523 on the quantitative

Figure 2
Number of Students Enrolled in Education 500
Spring 1980–Fall 1984



## Figure 3
## Academic Characteristics of Five-Year Students UNH Teacher Education Program

| Year | Number | GPA | GRE Score Verbal | GRE Score Quantitative | Combined GRE |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1978 | 69 | 2.99 | 511 | 523 | 1034 |
| 1979 | 55 | 3.01 | 518 | 515 | 1033 |
| 1980 | 45 | 3.02 | 531 | 509 | 1040 |
| 1981 | 57 | 3.01 | 493 | 513 | 1006 |
| 1982 | 37 | 3.05 | 501 | 530 | 1031 |
| 1983 | 57 | 3.05 | 530 | 551 | 1081 |
| 1984 | 65 | 3.05 | 527 | 522 | 1049 |
| Average |  | 3.03 | 516 | 523 | 1039 |

aptitude test. Combined verbal and quantitative scores averaged 1042. Scores on the GRE are higher for the past two years than ever before (see Figure 3). Approximately 40% of those admitted to the five-year programs have been honor students as undergraduates.

The academic quality of students attracted to the Five-Year Program is illustrated by examining the profile of the top 40% of the students admitted during 1983 and 1984. Forty-seven students in this sample had an average grade point of 3.38. The average verbal score on the Graduate Record Examination is 591. The average quantitative score was 598. The combined average was 1189. Twenty-four members of this group graduated *cum laude*. Eleven graduated *magna cum laude*. Four graduated *summa cum laude*. Seven were elected to Phi Beta Kappa. Eleven were elected to other national societies honoring academic achievement.

Clearly the academic characteristics of students in the UNH Five-Year Teacher Education Program are outstanding. Not only do they represent a group academically far superior to prospective teachers described in national summaries, they also represent significantly better than average senior students at the University of New Hampshire and are comparable to all graduate students at that institution.

### Non-Academic Characteristics

Students in the Five-Year Teacher Education Program at UNH are significantly different academically from those described as representative of the national teacher talent pool. Do they differ in other ways as well? The evidence is less clear, but there are some unusual facts that seem to indicate significant difference.

One is the high job securing rate of program graduates. Over 90% of five-year program graduates have obtained jobs in their first year after program completion. This figure has remained consistent (85–93%) over the ten-year history of the program. The record has held during a period of great oversupply of teachers. Two factors seem to explain this high job success rate. The first is superior qualifications for competition in the marketplace (a strong subject matter background and general education, outstanding academic credentials, and extended internship experience).

The second is great commitment to a career in teaching. Students who select the Five-Year Teacher Education Program at UNH have a strong desire to teach. They persist in spite of high academic standards, an additional year (or more) of higher education and ever escalating costs, plus the sometimes gloomy reports of job prospects, job status, and poor pay.

To further clarify the reasons for choice of a teaching career with the UNH Five-Year Program, a study was conducted in 1982 to analyze factors cited by students as influencing their choice for and against a career in teaching. The data source was a self-analysis paper required of all students in the initial program course, Exploring Teaching (Phase One). In this paper students are asked to consider their personal values, goals, attributes, and their recent semester of experience in teaching, and to evaluate the possibility of teaching as a career. For the study of career decisions, a stratified random sample was taken over a five-year period (Fall, 1976, through Spring, 1981); 248 papers were chosen. This represented 20% of the total. Subgroups were identified. Twenty percent of each group was sampled.

Two readers plus the author read a small sample of papers and identified a list of factors cited by students as influencing them to choose a career in teaching and a list of factors influencing them against a career in teaching. The list was adjusted after a preliminary sample was completed by the two readers (graduate students in education). Only the data agreed upon by both raters were used.

Several interesting generalizations can be drawn from the analysis of data. First, the most important factor for those who chose to go on in the Five-Year Program (N = 86) is the social service motivation: *Helping—Human Growth.* This is discussed by students in terms of wanting to make a contribution in an area of social need that they consider of great importance. This factor is most frequently listed by both men and women. *Enjoyment of Children* is the second most frequent factor cited in support of a teaching career by those choosing to continue in the Five-Year Program (32.5%). However, this rating is nearly entirely the result of women's priorities. Only 4.5% of the men chose this factor, and it rated a distant sixth in the men's summary. Third, *Love of Subject* is the third most important factor in favor of a teaching career for those who chose to go on in the Five-Year Program. This was of equal significance to men and women. Fourth, students who go on in the teacher education program mention very few negative factors in making their tentative career choice. The most predominant negative factor, *Salary*, was list by only 4.7% of the sample.

The extreme priority given to the social service motivation by the academically talented students and the disregard of negative factors by students choosing to teach demonstrate that we are dealing with more than a supply-demand or wage-talent situation in attracting good people into teaching.

While the issue of retention demands that we attend to the negative factors surrounding the job of teaching, the recruitment of good teachers demands that we emphasize the positive aspects. Our research and repeated conversations with students in the Exploring Teaching course emphasize that students choose to enter teaching because they want to make an important social contribution. They value the educational growth of children. They love working with young people. They love their subject field. They are good at teaching, and they like the life style and work schedule. We can recruit good teachers by emphasizing these aspects of the job.

## A NATIONAL PLAN FOR RESTRUCTURING TEACHER EDUCATION

Ten years' experience with an extended teacher education program at a state university provides evidence for a plan to effectively restructure teacher education. The most important conclusion is that teacher educators can improve both the talent pool for teaching and the quality of preparation by appropriately restructuring their programs. Restructuring needs to emphasize the following five factors.

### The Basics for Change

1. Strong subject field preparation and few professional requirements at the undergraduate level.
2. High academic standards for entry into teacher education.
3. Choice from challenging, well taught, professional offerings.
4. Classroom teaching experience early in the program.
5. A well supervised, year-long internship.

Extending teacher education programs beyond four years coupled with more stringent academic and performance standards will undoubtedly reduce the number of teachers prepared at most institutions. This will have two beneficial results. One, it will reduce the number of teachers of low academic ability. Two, it will provide a higher percentage of teacher education students who actually take teaching jobs. While we have no complete follow-up data suggesting how long these people stay in teaching, we do know that requirement of an extra year to become a teacher has significantly increased the number of program graduates who actually enter teaching. (Or, to put it differently, it has significantly reduced the number of graduates who don't enter teaching.)

This approach to restructuring teacher education will also produce a problem. It will reduce the supply of teachers. The reduction will not be as great as might be expected if three new efforts are concurrently made. One is the active recruitment of good students for teaching. The second is to provide student financial support for the extended program. The third is to ensure that work in the extended program counts toward a Master's degree.

Teacher educators have not yet tested the effectiveness of recruitment to any appreciable degree. Our experience and research indicate that there are many excellent students with the necessary qualifications for becoming good teachers who can be enlisted for at least a few years of service to teaching. These are students who have a strong desire for social service and who place a high value on education. We believe they can be best recruited by appealing to their sense of service and by providing challenging programs of high quality.

W. Timothy Weaver has provided an interesting analysis of the possible consequences of restructuring teacher education (Weaver, 1984). He contends that the supply of good teachers is tied tightly to available wages. While his analysis is in most ways convincing, he fails to recognize the power of the social service motive and the love of teaching that attract into teaching people who could command far greater wages in another field.

The decade from 1974 to 1984 has been a time of pragmatism on college campuses and in much of our society. We have experienced little idealism and a dearth of support for social service.

A renewed support of the value of teaching from society and from our educational institutions can produce numbers of good teachers far in excess of those predicted by an analysis of economic factors.

Studies examining teacher retention have confirmed that academically talented students most often leave teaching after three to five years (Darling-Hammond, 1984; Schlechty & Vance, 1982). This fact has been evident at least since the height of the M.A.T. programs in the 1950s and 1960s. We know that it is normal for individuals to change careers several times in their lives. Teaching can be promoted as a good, first career as well as an opportunity for providing important social service.

Of course, we must not only promote teaching as a short term commitment, but it seems appropriate to openly recognize the fact that teaching can be a desirable short term, first career for many capable people.

While salary may not deter many good candidates from teaching, the added immediate financial burden of an extended teacher preparation program may. Financial support for the education of outstanding candidates for teaching must be made available if the restructuring advocated in this paper is to work toward significantly improving the nation's teachers. We cannot realistically expect that large numbers of outstanding college students will pay for an extended teacher preparation program with the prospects of a relatively low salary in return. This has been obvious at the University of New Hampshire, sometimes painfully obvious. Good candidates often make decisions to choose the fifth year of our program because a paid internship or scholarship is available. Many do not finish the program because funds are not available.

The lack of financial support for the extended program is the most serious problem for the Five-Year Program at the University of New Hampshire. We are only preparing 60 to 70 teachers a year from this program. We estimate that we could prepare 150 equally competent teachers a year from the Five-Year Program if appropriate financial support were available. The investment of \$5,000–\$10,000 is enough to tip the balance for a significant number of students. This is surely a small investment for the teaching services of the top half of our academic talent pool, even if those services are for only a few years.

State and Federal government, business, industry, private foundations, and concerned individuals must join together with colleges and universities to provide financial support for the education of outstanding prospective teachers. Without such support, we will not be able significantly to improve the quality of the nation's teachers.

The availability of graduate programs for the extended preparation is an added incentive to weigh against the expense and time for the extended program and teaching salary reality. The graduate degree offers prestige as well as a substantial increase in pay in most school systems. Having a graduate degree as part of an extended program is not essential, but without it other incentives must exist.

The enrollment impact of proposed restructuring will be the greatest in institutions that draw from the middle and lower half of the college student population. If admission to teacher education requires that students represent the top half of the national student talent pool, then many of these institutions would be forced out of the teacher education business. Immediate problems of teacher supply as well as other political consequences of this action make such a recommendation impractical. A more realistic requirement is that teacher education programs draw students from the top half of their institutional student pools. This will significantly reduce the number of poorly qualified teachers prepared.

The proposed restructuring would also make teacher education difficult in small, private colleges. They would be particularly vulnerable both because a reduction in size of teacher education programs could bring programs to a less than efficient size and because those schools are usually unable to offer graduate programs. The opportunity to receive a master's degree or to work toward one is a major incentive for the student in an extended program.

Institutions with large teacher education programs could also expect a major impact on enrollments. This is a predictable result of the post baccalaureate requirement and of academic requirements more stringent than many schools now have. However, schools already holding high standards for admission to teacher education will experience less impact. Dale P. Scannell reports preliminary evidence that the first group of graduates from the extended program at the University of Kansas will be about the same size as the last class to graduate from that institution's former four-year program (Scannell, 1984, p. 133).

## Promoting Teacher Recruitment and Preparation at Our Best Colleges and Universities

To move to increase the number of good teachers in any substantial way, we must not only look at restructuring existing programs but also at the redistribution of some of our efforts to the more prestigious institutions. These schools need to be encouraged to institute well supported, attractive teacher preparation options. Variations of the model developed at the University of New Hampshire would be entirely appropriate for some of these institutions.

The smaller institutions in this group may not be able to mount a viable teacher preparation option. These schools could offer a program of exploratory classroom teaching and connect interested students with nearby schools having an extended teacher education program with a post-baccalaureate entry. Such an option is available at the University of New Hampshire. It parallels the M.A.T. program structure of the 1950s and 60s and currently serves about 15 students a year.

## Appropriate Support from State and National Agencies

Restructuring of programs and redistribution of responsibilities can only work if supported by state and national educational agencies and teacher certification groups. These groups must come to realize that the challenge of providing good teachers for the nation's schools requires positive recruitment and an emphasis on teacher education program redesign that will attract more students with the desired, and indeed necessary, qualifications for teaching.

Certifying and accrediting agencies should ask that institutions preparing teachers represent accredited colleges and universities, and that they offer good proof of a few basic requirements such as the following:

1. That they are attracting the majority of their students from the top half of their institution's student population.
2. That students are selected for teacher preparation programs based, in part, on observations of student performance in classrooms, and that competent classroom teachers participate in selection decisions.
3. That their students are receiving strong subject matter preparation in a major field and in areas of proposed teaching responsibility.
4. That students are receiving a minimum of well structured professional course work that can be justified as important and relevant to the teacher's role in the classroom and the school. Inclusion of any required courses should be based on at least three questions. Do the courses involve content that is basic to good teaching and the teacher's role in the school? Is the content not adequately dealt with in other aspects of the program? Is it content that the preservice program can and should apply?
5. That there are at least 15 weeks of well supervised clinical experience to produce a competent beginning teacher, and that good classroom teachers are involved in decisions attesting to competence.
6. That at least 80% of program graduates initially take teaching jobs.

The last criterion is particularly important. It is a test of the desirability of the product. It is also a measure of the efficiency of use of teacher preparation resources. Too often our programs in teacher education have been used as easy routes through college or as insurance policies against unemployment in some other field. We cannot justify the expense of high quality programs of teacher preparation if our graduates do not enter the field of education.

State and national agencies setting standards for teacher certification must stop the proliferation of specific requirements and more strongly enforce the basic ingredients for providing good teachers. Institutions not making sufficient effort to provide the basics should be encouraged to do so. Institutions not able or willing to provide the basics should not be accredited in teacher preparation. Institutions providing the basics should be praised for doing so.

If program restructuring, redistribution of responsibility, and positive support by state and federal agencies can be combined with a successful national effort to improve the conditions of teaching, then we can meet our challenge of providing enough good teachers for the nation's classrooms.

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# V

# The University of Kansas Extended Teacher Education Program

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In the spring of 1981 the School of Education at the University of Kansas announced that students matriculating subsequent to that date would have to meet the requirements of a new teacher education program. The new program would consist of 162 hours spread over five academic years. The announcement also noted that the then-existing four-year program would be phased out as the sophomores of 1981 completed their programs. The decision to initiate an extended teacher education program culminated several years of planning by faculty in the School, faculty from other parts of the University, and colleagues from school districts in northeast Kansas.

This chapter will chronicle briefly the history of the School's decision, describe the major features of the new program, and report some highlights of the four years of program implementation. In addition, the relationship of the new program to statewide reform activities will be noted.

## THE DECISION PROCESS

During the 1970s the faculty of the School engaged in a self-study with the major goal of developing short and long-range plans for the future of the school. In current parlance the activities would be called "strategic planning." The study focused on three sets of factors: the characteristics of the faculty of the School, the students, and the institution; the emerging literature on teacher education; and the state and national trends in education impinging on the School. The study was premised on the belief that the programs and activities of the School should draw on the strengths and interests of faculty and should respond effectively to the state and national needs encompassed by the institutional mission. Although decisions affecting a variety of School activities resulted from the self-study, this chapter will concentrate on the decisions affecting the preservice teacher education program.

During the period of self-study, numerous suggestions were made that the School should seriously consider major changes in the preservice teacher education program. Although the program compared favorably with other traditional programs in the state and nation, there were concerns about the piecemeal changes made during the 1970s in response to state and federal mandates. In addition, there were concerns that a four-year model could not accommodate all that prospective teachers needed to experience.

In the fall of 1979, each department in the School selected representatives for an ad hoc committee charged to develop a concept paper describing the program that was necessary and appropriate for prospective teachers. The committee was asked to ignore time constraints and to identify the characteristics of a program the institution could take pride in offering. The concept paper was adopted by the School in December 1979 and served as the framework for subsequent development of the new program.

The paper included a rationale for a new teacher education program. Among the factors cited are these:

1. Because of the constant expansion of knowledge and changing perceptions by society concerning the role of education, the School needed to produce educators with the ability to adapt to change.
2. Given the expanded research on teaching, a teacher education program must include a strong research utilization component at the undergraduate level.
3. Because of increasing emphasis and need for individualized instruction, teachers need training and field experience to prepare them to individualize instruction for all students.
4. Given the myriad recent technological innovations, prospective teachers need the capability to use educational technology to improve their instruction and to enhance student learning.

The paper also included nine goals and 53 related objectives for a teacher education program. The goals are listed below:

1. The professional teacher possesses self-understanding.
2. The professional teacher has knowledge of human growth, development, and learning and applies this knowledge to teaching children and adolescents.

3. The professional teacher is skilled in human relations.
4. The professional teacher understands curriculum planning and is skilled in choosing and adapting instructional strategies to implement varying curricula.
5. The professional teacher manages a learning environment effectively.
6. The professional teacher evaluates student learning and uses educational research methodologies to improve instruction and student learning.
7. The professional teacher understands the scope of the teaching profession and the school as a social-political organization.
8. The professional teacher is a liberally educated person.
9. The professional teacher has thorough knowledge of the aspects of at least one subject matter area that is included in the public school curriculum.

Even though the concept paper avoided any specification of program length or number of semester hours, it was clear that the comprehensive nature of the objectives would require more coursework and activities than the traditional four-year, baccalaureate degree model could accommodate. Recognizing that the development of a program to accomplish the goals might be professionally justified but politically naive, the next step was what might be called "reality testing." For several years the School had benefitted from the assistance of an off-campus advisory committee comprised of superintendents and local teacher organization presidents, or their designated representatives, and representatives of the state school board association, the state board of education, the state department of education, and the state teachers' association. The School turned to this committee for advice and counsel. Copies of the concept paper were sent to the members and a meeting was held to discuss reactions to the program implied by the paper.

The reactions of the advisory committee were supportive and enthusiastic. Superintendents indicated that graduates from such a program would be their first choice when hiring beginning teachers. Several indicated that they would modify salary schedules to provide an appropriate point of entry for graduates of the program. Many of the members expressed interest in working with faculty committees in developing the program.

Concerns and doubts, questions, and suggestions also were expressed. For example:

- Could KU afford to begin an extended program unilaterally? Wouldn't enrollment drop precipitously as students elected to attend a school with a four-year program?

- Was it fair to ask students to spend more than four years to enter a field that is so poorly compensated?
- Was KU really willing to involve teachers and administrators to the extent that the program would require?
- Was the motive to extend the program really an attempt to bolster credit-hour production since enrollments had decreased significantly?

These and other questions were discussed and, evidently, answered satisfactorily; the committee concluded the meeting by encouraging the School to proceed and by volunteering to assist in program development.

During the spring semester of 1980, five committees worked on separate aspects of program development, and during the 1980 summer session a committee of the five chairpersons of the previous committees consolidated the separate reports into a comprehensive document providing the framework for a five-year program. The report was adopted by the School Assembly in July of 1980.

Work during the 1980–81 academic year focused on two major tasks: refining the program content and ensuring support from constituencies and controlling authorities. The former involved active participation of all groups represented in earlier planning efforts. The latter was critical in many ways, and the process will be described in some detail.

In Kansas, institutions under control by the Board of Regents, the authority to establish graduation and program requirements traditionally has been vested with the faculty offering the program. Even so, a change as significant as the one being planned requires support within the University and among various state agencies.

Great care was taken, from original debates through all planning activities, to keep central administration informed about the School's plans and decisions. The Chancellor attended one meeting and the Vice Chancellor for Academic Affairs attended several meetings of the School's advisory committee. The support of off-campus colleagues had a significant influence on the attitudes of central administrators. At one meeting, after the program outline had been developed, the Vice Chancellor interrogated the committee rather vigorously to ascertain their level of support and commitment and their assessment of the need for such a dramatic change. The information provided and the support indicated by off-campus colleagues helped to convert the Vice Chancellor from a neutral skeptic to an ardent supporter of the efforts. In discussing future allocations, an agreement was reached stating that the School of Education would not be penalized if semester credit hour production decreased due to a decline in undergraduate enrollment.

As noted earlier, the Commissioner of Education or his representative attended meetings of the advisory committee when the concept paper and progress reports on the program were presented. State Board members also were present. Because of this, the Board and the State Department were knowledgeable about the plans and, in fact, had opportunities to influence decisions. Even so, a presentation was made about the plans to the entire State Board of Education. The presentation included a description of the rationale and the main advantages the program would have for preparing highly qualified teachers for Kansas schools.

In addition to these aspects of informing important constituencies, presentations also were made to the state post-secondary coordinating commission (mostly legislators), the chair of the Senate Education Committee, the Kansas Association of Personnel Directors, and the Kansas Board of Regents, among others.

During discussions with these groups many opinions were expressed about the plans. Some people applauded the efforts and the courage to embark on this course of action. Others, including friends of KU, had reservations and doubts about what the future impact would be on the School. Very few people questioned the need for more comprehensive programs, but frequently an observation was made about requiring an additional year of study for students who would enter a field characterized by low salaries and status.

A summary of the history of the School's decision and the planning stages would be incomplete without some comments about faculty reactions throughout the process. In general it could be noted that votes by the School Assembly were virtually unanimous in support of recommendations, particularly at the early stages when the issues were near the abstract end of the continuum. The closer the decisions came to being specific, causing changes in courses and activities, the greater was the opposition to the recommendations. This will be no surprise to those who have been involved in the process of program change in higher education.

A significant core of faculty enthusiastically endorsed the concept of an extended program. This group spent long hours in program development and exercised strong leadership within the faculty. As planning moved into the phase of identifying the specific program requirements and the credit hour allocation to courses, faculty disagreements increased: "We need more than a three-hour course" or "We favor requiring two levels of certification" or "We favor requiring two teaching majors of all students" were common pleas. On these and many other issues, faculty votes split. However, negative votes were based on different specific issues, and the number of people who opposed the extended program concept was relatively small.

## AN OVERVIEW OF PROGRAM CONTENT

The new teacher education program at the University of Kansas was designed to accomplish several major purposes:

1. To provide students an opportunity early in their college careers to make a well-informed decision about whether to major in teacher education;
2. To provide strong general education and teaching field areas of study;
3. To provide appropriate clinical experiences, including frequent activities in K–12 classrooms;
4. To provide careful articulation between theory and practice;
5. To provide an opportunity to study theories of pedagogy and recent research; and
6. To provide an opportunity for students to develop teaching styles best suited to their own preferences and personality.

These purposes are addressed through the general education, teaching field, and professional education components of the program. All teachers, regardless of subject or grade level taught, are role models for children and youth. Thus, teachers must have a broad general education in order to have the competence to relate content from one field to content in other disciplines. The general education requirement in the new teacher education program is 60 hours distributed across six major fields:

| | |
|---|---|
| English and other language arts | 12 hours |
| Behavioral sciences, including psychology | 6 hours |
| Social sciences, with courses from at least three of the four areas of history, geography, political science, and economics | 9 hours |
| Arts and humanities | 9 hours |
| Science and mathematics, to include at least one mathematics course and two laboratory science courses | 12 hours |
| Physical and mental health | 3 hours |
| Electives from the six areas above | 9 hours |
| | 60 hours |

The second major component of the teacher education program is coursework in the teaching field or fields. The teaching field requirement in the new teacher education program is a minimum of 40 hours. Middle level and secondary students are advised to complete at least one major teaching field and one minor. Elementary teachers are encouraged to take two minors, but they could elect to take one major instead. Even though the requirement specifies a minimum of 40 hours, in actual practice the majors vary from 36 to 45 hours and minors vary from 23 to 28 hours. A review of current records for students in the program indicates that most students will take more than the minimum in the teaching field.

The third major component of the program, pedagogy or professional education, includes both generic coursework and subject/level specific coursework. This component includes a minimum of 62 hours, with courses designed to develop four major themes that spiral through the program. These themes include a) growth and development, including special attention to exceptional children; b) assessment, research literacy, and technology, the skills required for monitoring student progress, comprehending research literature, and evaluating instructional effectiveness; c) interpersonal relationships including knowing self as a teacher and communication skills for interactions with both children and adults; and d) gradual induction into the role of a teacher, which is provided through the experiential aspects of the program.

The freshman year includes one course on introduction to teaching. The course is team taught by a teacher educator and a member of the Counseling Department faculty who has expertise in career planning. The major focus of the course is on the role of a teacher. The course is designed to help students assess their personal interest in assuming the responsibilities of teachers. In this course, faculty receive a great deal of assistance from a cadre of teachers and administrators in the local schools, and the course includes structured observations of different types of classrooms.

During the sophomore year, two courses in professional education are offered: multicultural education and child study techniques. Both courses include a series of assignments in the schools. By the end of the sophomore year students have a solid basis for deciding whether to remain in teacher education or, on the other hand, to transfer into another major field of study.

Although the program design includes five semester hours of professional coursework during the freshman and sophomore years, faculty work with transfer students at the junior level to plan programs appropriate for the student's background and experiences. In addition, lower division coursework can be made up during the junior year.

The program has quality control measures at key points in the sequence. To be admitted to the junior level, students must have a 2.5 lower division GPA, satisfactory scores on the writing and mathematics sections of the NTE Pre-Professional Skills Test, and endorsement by faculty members. To continue into the fifth year of the program, students must have an overall GPA of 2.7. The GPA requirement may erode enrollment, but the standard is consistent with a goal of conducting a high quality program with academically competent students.

The first four years of the program include a minimum of 126 hours, with at least 100 of the hours in coursework related to general education and teaching fields. Students will be granted the bachelor's degree at that point in their careers. Even though the program was designed to assist students in making well informed career choices early in their college careers, the award of a bachelor's degree at the end of four years provides a good opportunity for students to self-select out of teacher education. Although few students likely will continue through the fourth year without making a commitment to finish the program, some students may learn late in the bachelor's degree program that they do not want to become teachers.

The organization and content of the fifth year have continued to be topics of discussion within the School of Education. The originial conceptualization of the fifth year has been retained, but various alternatives have been considered. The organization of the fifth year includes two assignments in K–12 classrooms and intervening study in graduate level courses. The format is presented below:

| | **Fall Semester** | |
|---|---|---|
| Weeks 1–8 | Student Teaching | 6 hours, undergraduate credit |
| Weeks 9–16 | Coursework in professional topics | 8 hours, graduate credit |
| | **Spring Semester** | |
| Weeks 1–6 | Advanced methods,<br>department specific | 2 hours, graduate credit |
| | department elective | 4 hours, graduate credit |
| Weeks 7–16 | Internship | 9–12 hours, graduate credit can be granted at department discretion if internship is in the same subject and at the same level as student teaching; otherwise undergraduate credit will be granted. |

The assignments for student teaching and internship will be in two different schools in most cases, and faculty encourage students to take these assignments in different types of schools. For example, if the first assignment is in an urban setting, faculty recommend that the second be taken in a rural setting. If the first is in a wealthy district, faculty encourage students to take the second in a less advantaged district. In any case, the program is designed so that students will work under the supervision of two different mentors and gain an understanding of a broader range of teaching styles.

The student teaching assignment includes school opening and the planning that occurs for a semester or year. The internship includes school closing and the activities associated with planning for the subsequent year. The two assignments provide important experiences that traditional one-semester assignments lack.

Faculty members in the School have engaged in debate over the nature of credit for the internship. Some have argued that the internship does not warrant graduate credit, that it is just a student teaching experience. Others have argued that the internship will build on expertise gained in the fall and could be viewed as comparable to practicum in Counseling, Administration, School Psychology, Special Education, and other fields in which graduate credit routinely is granted. The objectives associated with the internship relate to a research component, appropriate for one intending to stay in teaching, but some faculty believe that the research is too far removed from that normally associated with the master's degree and thus are opposed to granting graduate credit. The policy described in the outline above is perhaps a compromise of the two positions.

Faculty also debated the organization of the fifth-year. One side argued for uninterrupted assignments in schools, citing cooperating teacher preferences and what was described as unreasonable loads if students were taking any other courses during student teaching. The other side wanted to extend the student teaching assignment by several weeks and to have students meet periodically for seminars or courses on topics that would tie theory and practice more closely together. Although departments have some discretion with regard to the organization, generally the former position prevailed.

The coursework in the fifth year includes topics that experience and research have shown to be enhanced by formal responsibilities in schools. The courses draw on the experiences students have had during student teaching and are designed to help students be more effective, both skilled and knowledgeable, during the internship.

At the completion of the program, students will have earned the institutional recommendation for certification and will have a minimum of 15 hours of graduate credit that will apply toward a master's degree. Students who qualify for early co-enrollment in the graduate school during the eighth semester of the program will be even closer to a graduate degree. However, the current program is not designed to culminate in a master's degree.

## OBSERVATIONS FROM FOUR YEARS OF PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATION

The first class of students in the new program is now in the fifth year. Thus, these observations are based on limited experience with the program.

Preliminary studies of the students in the new teacher education program suggest that the students are performing better academically than did students in the now discontinued four-year program. During the 1983 fall semester, data were obtained on students in the junior class of the new program. With most of the credit of the first two years earned from departments in the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences or the School of Fine Arts, the average GPA for students in elementary education was 2.78, for secondary education 2.95, and for music education 2.99. In the College of Liberal Arts, at the lower division level, the average grade assigned is 2.4 and 2.6 at the freshman and sophomore years, respectively. Thus, it appears that students in the program are performing quite well in relationship to other students at the lower division level.

An analysis of ACT scores during the fall of 1983 suggests that the students in the program are substantially above the national average and that the recent classes have higher average scores than earlier classes. Both the GPA and ACT data support an earlier prediction, that an intellectually challenging program would attract better students. The number of students enrolled in the undergraduate program is lower than it was several years ago. Several factors, however, should be noted. First, enrollments had been decreasing in the four-year program and no one knows whether the trend is continuing or whether the adoption of an extended program has had an impact. Second, the program was designed specifically to assist students to self-select out of education if they discover that teaching would not be a good occupation for them. Thus, although this is a smaller senior class than the School had in 1984, students who have remained in the program are committed to teaching, and most likely a larger percent of the current senior class will enter teaching after completion of the fifth year. This phenomenon has been noted at the University of New Hampshire where a five-year program has been in existence for a number of years.

During the 1983–84 academic year all schools and colleges of education within the state-supported institutions of Kansas underwent review by the Board of Regents. Consultants were hired to review the programs and to submit recommendations to the Board. During the fall of 1984 the consultants submitted their report. Included in it is a recommendation that the new program be evaluated as soon as possible and that the Board, upon a favorable evaluation, consider extending the program to all other state-supported institutions.

## STATEWIDE CHANGES IN STANDARDS

During recent years several changes have been made in the requirements for initial certification in Kansas. In addition, the Board of Regent institutions have adopted additional requirements.

In 1981, the Board of Regent institutions agreed to a policy, to become effective in the fall of 1983, to require students to have a 2.5 lower-division GPA and to earn acceptable scores on basic skill tests covering mathematics and writing, in order to be admitted to full standing at the junior year in a teacher education program. These policies are only for the state-supported institutions and do not affect the four-year private schools in the state.

During this same period of time, the State Board of Education also adopted some new policies. The first to be enacted was a requirement that students have a 2.5 GPA to qualify for initial certification. More recently the State Board has adopted the National Teachers Exam Core Battery as a pre-certification test; this policy becomes effective on May 1, 1986. A contract has been signed for the validation of the test and for the purpose of establishing the passing scores.

The State Board also has adopted a requirement for an internship year for beginning teachers. This policy becomes effective in the fall of 1987. Plans for the internship year are not complete at the present time, and there is some question about whether the emphasis will be on assistance for beginning teachers or whether the emphasis will be on evaluation of the competence of beginning teachers. Most likely the regulations will include both elements.

## SUMMARY

The present fifth year class will be the first to complete the new program, in the spring of 1986. The students in that class appear to be quite capable academically as measured by both ACT and by the University GPA. The students appear to be committed to teaching and knowledgeable about the issues that will affect their professional careers as teachers.

As the School has moved through the various years of implementing the new program, faculty have profited from the experiences. Modifications have been made in coursework during the first three years of the program. Faculty will continue to monitor the program and make adjustments as the evidence suggests. A comprehensive evaluation of the program has been established that will be used to guide decisions in the future. Most faculty members who work in the program are convinced that the students who will finish the program in 1986 will be highly competent professionals, prepared for their first autonomous assignment, and capable of continuing their own professional development.

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# VI

# Teacher Education Reform in Tennessee

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Americans have always held high expectations for their schools. Periodically, the expectations elevate so quickly and so dramatically that schools experience serious credibility problems; indeed, in such periods schools are often branded as failures.

Such a condition was developing in 1983 when the National Commission on Excellence in Education published *A Nation at Risk*. Quickly following were about two dozen other reports having similar thrusts and producing similar findings and recommendations. Thus, within a relatively short period of time, about two years, the groundwork was laid for many governmental and regulatory agencies to demand major changes in American schools.

The current reform efforts are distinguished from previous ones in the comprehensiveness of their concerns, their intensity, and the fact that for the first time in history the primary action arena is not in Washington, but rather in the various states.

No state has been more heavily involved than Tennessee in the debate about the shortcomings of schools and what is needed to improve them. Intensive debate took place within the state immediately prior to March 1984, when Governor Lamar Alexander signed into law the Comprehensive Education Reform Act of 1984 and the Education Governance Reform Act (Public Chapter 6 of the First Extraordinary Session of 1984) that established a new state board of education with a significantly different composition, role, and function.

The Comprehensive Education Reform Act (CERA) dramatically accelerated and elevated the State's efforts to improve schools and teacher education programs. Actually, CERA was a follow-up of Governor Lamar

Alexander's Better Schools Program presented to the legislature a year earlier (1983). Only one of the ten provisions in the Better Schools Program (transferring control of post-secondary vocational education programs from the State Board of Education to the State Board of Regents of the State University and Community College System of Tennessee) was enacted by the 1983 legislature. The other nine provisions, including the centerpiece of the program, the Master Teacher Program, were carried over for a year and assigned by the legislature to a Select Committee on Education for study, fact finding, and debate. The Select Committee's findings and recommendations formed the basis for the proposed CERA and was the major item in the Extraordinary Session of the 1984 General Assembly called by the Governor on January 4, 1984. The final version incorporated the remaining nine of the Governor's earlier ten recommendations.

This paper is divided into three parts: (a) a summary of actions taken between 1975 and 1980; (b) a discussion of action taken during the years of 1981 and 1982, just prior to the passage of CERA; and, (c) a description of provisions in CERA that dealt directly with teacher education and those provisions of the Act that have implications for teacher education, both preservice and inservice.

## TEACHER EDUCATION IMPROVEMENT EFFORTS 1975–1980

For about a quarter of a century, 1953 to 1975, the state of Tennessee relied on its version of the approved program concept to monitor and control teacher education. Although the processes by which programs were monitored and evaluated changed from time to time, and content requirements for various certificates changed through the years, such changes were rather minor in nature and essentially were initiated and recommended by the professional community. Beginning in 1975, however, eight years before the *Nation at Risk* report, change initiatives shifted from professional education groups to the State Board of Education and the General Assembly.

Major change initiatives and their sources during this period in Tennessee were:

1. In 1975, the State Board of Education ruled that effective July 1, 1980, all graduates of teacher education programs must have completed a course (or equivalent experience) dealing with the characteristics of handicapped students. The genesis of the decision was two-fold: similar requirements had been passed in neighboring states, and Tennessee was experiencing litigation with a movement that was later to become a national policy in the form of PL

94-142—The Education of All Handicapped Students Act. Teacher education programs in Tennessee experienced little difficulty in adjusting to the new requirement.

2. In 1978, the State Board of Education, without advance notice, mandated that students could be admitted to teacher education programs *only* if they made satisfactory scores on a standardized test of basic skills acceptable to the Board. Subsequently, the California Achievement Test, Level 19, was recommended by the Commissioner of Education and approved by the Board. Required areas were reading comprehension, language mechanics and expression, and mathematics computation. Minimum scores were set by the Board at or above the 50th percentile based on national norms for grades 9.3–9.5.

   Reaction to this directive was immediate, mixed, and, at times, heated. The public was delighted with the directive. Some people asked about teachers already on the job. Several institutional officials contended that admission requirements for preparation programs were institutional prerogatives. The Board countered that its power to approve or disapprove preparation programs included admission matters. The Board's viewpoint prevailed. The Tennessee Council of Education Deans supported the elevated admission requirements but opposed the particular test adopted. The deans predicted, accurately as it turned out, that the decision would boomerang and that the public would express dismay at "ninth-grade level" requirements for college sophomores preparing to become teachers.

   To the surprise of some and the discomfort of many, the mandated tests did prevent some Tennessee students from preparing to be teachers, at least in Tennessee institutions. Some students reportedly went across the state line for their preparation and then came back to teach in Tennessee. Others were merely delayed and later met the minimum scores upon retesting. To no one's surprise, institutions with significant concentrations of minority and low-income students showed higher rates of failures on the tests.

   In the spring of 1979, the State Board of Education reevaluated the CAT-Basic Skills Test requirement with expressed intentions to significantly increase the minimum scores required for admission to any approved teacher education program in the state. That the state was continuing the certification of teachers prepared out-of-state was being ignored, as was the previously raised question regarding an effort to validate the competency of teachers already on the job.

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The Council of Education Deans did not oppose the Board's decision per se, but pointed out to the Board that the matter was perhaps more complex than they seemed to think and that the decision would have great impact on minority and disadvantaged students, on institutions already experiencing decreased enrollments, and on several other aspects of education. The State Board asked the deans to prepare a position paper on the matter.

The plan prepared by the deans was approved by the Board on November 9, 1979, and called for (a) increasing cut-off scores over a three-year period to twelfth-grade norms at the 75th percentile level, (b) allowing institutions to substitute an ACT composite score of 17 for the required CAT scores, and (c) formulating a clearly-stated procedure for retesting, including a requirement of remedial efforts between testing periods.

3. In 1978, the Board of Education became interested in competency-based education. A group of deans, professors, principals, and classroom teachers were asked to identify competencies needed by elementary school teachers. The Board adopted the group's report, thus requiring institutions to revise their curricula in elementary education to ensure the attainment of the specified competencies by students preparing to teach in the elementary grades.
4. In 1979, the Board passed, again without advanced notice, a requirement that all applicants for teacher certification take the National Teacher Examinations (Commons) and furnish the Board with a report of scores attained. Cut-off scores were not set at the time, pending the accumulation of sufficient normative data. Cut-off scores were not set until shortly after the passage of CERA in 1984. Scores were also required on area tests currently available for the various subject fields in which the teacher applicant requested certification. Again it became apparent that the Board had not fully anticipated the complexity or the consequences of its decision. For example, at that time Tennessee offered certificate endorsements in about 30 areas for which the NTE had no specialized tests. Implementation of this requirement has been postponed.
5. In its 1981 session, the Tennessee legislature got into the business of teacher education. Seemingly unaware of the Board's 1979 decision requiring NTE scores as a condition of certification, the legislature passed a bill requiring the State Board of Education to establish procedures adequate to ensure that all graduates of teacher education present "satisfactory scores" on standardized tests which "assure" competency in basic skills and in the area(s) of education they plan to teach. Details were to be worked out by the Board.

Little action on the matter took place until the Comprehensive Education Reform Act of 1984.

6. In 1982 the legislature got further involved in teacher education. This time the involvement was over a State Board ruling that permitted a local school board member to count three years of experience on the board as three years of teaching experience, thus becoming eligible to run for office of superintendent. A bill was passed that made the determination of requirements for superintendents' certificate a legislature prerogative. The bill also reduced requirements from a sixth-year level (two years of graduate study) back to the fifth-year level (the master's degree). Five years of hard work by several professional groups that forced the Board to elevate the requirements to two years of graduate study were wiped out by this legislative action.

In summary, during the period 1975–80, the State Board of Education became relatively active in generating new requirements and in developing monitoring strategies that it believed would improve the competency of teachers entering the profession. Similarly, toward the end of this period the General Assembly became relatively active in teacher education. The actions by both agencies were aimed in the right direction and perhaps would have been unnecessary if the State Department of Education and teacher preparation institutions had pushed harder and more successfully for increased admission and program requirements.

## IMPROVEMENT EFFORTS, 1981–1982

In a two-year period just prior to Governor Alexander's 1983 announcement of the Better Schools Program, there were three significant developments. First, the Governor publicly embraced a project that had been initiated by the State Department of Education, entitled "Back to Basics." He visited many school systems to promote the program and used the project's objectives as a theme for several addresses. In response to negative reactions from teachers, who contended that they had never gotten away from the basics, the title of the project's name was changed to "Basics First." Within a few weeks the title was extended to include the words "Computer Skills Next."

The Governor's use of this extended slogan signalled his entry into the arena of educational reform. His promotional efforts become highly visible. Schools and colleges of education were quickly brought into the project, following a strongly worded plea by the Governor to both public higher education governing boards. Schools of education were asked to assist area schools in organizing and conducting inservice educational programs designed to achieve the objectives of the project. Over 100 teacher educators throughout the state quickly became involved in the movement.

Second, concerns about the quality of teacher education in the State began to surface. In March 1982, the State Board of Regents (SBR) established a Task Force on the Improvement of Quality in Teacher Education. The major areas of concern cited in the establishment of the Task Force were three dimensional.

1. The categories of knowledge, skills, and appreciations that primary and secondary school students should possess at the completion of their studies.
2. The relationship between current and projected supply and demand for teachers.
3. The requirements and procedures for preparing and credentialing teachers.

The membership of the Task Force consisted of two representatives from each of the SBR universities (one from the education faculty and one from the liberal arts faculty), a liaison representative of a community college, and one representative from the staff of the State Board of Regents.

The Task Force studied three components of teacher education programs, then set forth recommendations in each of the areas, namely:

1. the curriculum of teacher education programs;
2. the field (laboratory/clinical) experiences in which teacher education students should engage; and
3. the teacher education program requirements for admission, matriculation, and graduation.

The Task Force identified four sets of conditions that it believed to be inextricably related to teacher education and that would be powerful determinants as to whether or not improvements would be made in teacher education programs in the state. The four sets of conditions were:

1. the quality of preparation of high school graduates electing to prepare for teaching careers;
2. teacher certification policies, procedures, and requirements at both the preservice and inservice levels;
3. the level of commitment to and the adequacy of provisions made for funding, cooperative planning, research and development in teacher education (including the appropriate involvement of key groups and agencies such as local systems; the State Department of Education; higher education governing boards and regulators/coordinating agencies; and the departments, colleges, and schools of education); and

4. the adequacy of salary and benefit policies and procedures for attracting to teacher education programs, and subsequently to the teaching profession, higher percentages of students who have the personal and academic capacity for being trained to become effective teachers.

The Task Force concluded, among other things, that the quality of instruction offered in Tennessee schools would be improved only by improving all factors that impact on the instructional program, the adequacy of teacher preparation programs being a major one, but only one.

Shortly after the SBR Task Force was underway, the Board of Trustees of the University of Tennessee System activated a task force with a similar composition and set of objectives. The two studies were coordinated at the systems level and reported similar findings and needs. Findings and recommendations from the two studies were subsequently considered by the two systems, the Division of Teacher Education and Certification of the State Department of Education and the Tennessee Higher Education Commission.

Third, during the first few years of the 1980s, serious, thought-provoking situations were emerging that caused leaders in government and education to ponder about the future of education. An economic recession with accompanying unemployment, the decline in certain areas of heavy industry, and the emergence of high technology industries were conditions that received attention. The decreasing cost of computerized information processing and the increasing reliance by government and business on data treatment,storage, and rapid retrieval were also matters receiving attention.

Governmental, business, and educational leaders were mindful also that in Tennessee the largest expenditure of public funds (47.2 percent in 1980–81) was being appropriated to public education. The population of the state had increased approximately 11 percent during the last decade and there were projections that the corresponding public education enrollments would begin to increase during the latter portion of the 1980s. Thus, even with a slightly reduced inflation rate, the cost of public education was projected to increase significantly.

Public confidence in government and education appeared to be low, aggravated by attempts in several states to place a ceiling on taxation. To add to the dilemma, the role of the federal government was declining sharply, with the result that more funding pressures were being directed to the state. State governors and legislators were feeling these pressures and were emerging as more dominant forces in determining the future of public education than they had been in the past. Very significantly, the push for increased funding from the state was being countered with the proposition that before additional taxes were imposed, there must be assurances that they would result in better schools. A statewide survey revealed the public's perception of public education. Results were: fair (42.3 percent), good (32.2 percent), poor (19.8 percent), excellent (less than one percent), and no opinion (4.8 percent).

It was with this set of conditions and perceptions in mind that in May 1981, the Tennessee General Assembly passed Senate Joint Resolution No. 46, a piece of enabling legislation for the Tennessee Comprehensive Education Study. This was a timely move for reasons cited above and inasmuch as 25 years had elapsed since the last comprehensive study of public education in Tennessee.

A report of the study was made in December 1982 (Task Force for Review of Public Education). It contained a long list of recommendations categorized according to four major areas of concern: Goals, Governance, Quality, and Fund Distribution. All segments of public education were included in the study and thus in the recommendations.

The recommendations designed to improve the quality of education in Tennessee included a separate section on teacher preparation. Essentially, the recommendations called for: (a) increased admission and graduation requirements; (b) increased use of field-based classroom experiences; (c) establishment of on-going evaluations by the respective governing boards of existing preparation programs and means for assessing the need for and the quality and productivity of all teacher preparation programs and specialties, eliminating unnecessary duplication; (d) the issuance of temporary endorsements to teachers in such fields as math and science, with specified refresher course to be taken within the year; (e) establishment of the rank of "lead teacher" for individuals who would act as mentor for new and student teachers; (f) provision for lead teachers, with assistance of teacher educators, to provide inservice education programs to enhance the skills of current teachers; and (g) the certification of new teachers only after competency was demonstrated during a year's internship with a lead teacher.

As will be seen later, these recommendations were very similar in wording and intent to several provisions in Governor Alexander's Better Schools Program.

## THE COMPREHENSIVE EDUCATION REFORM ACT OF 1984

On January 29, 1983, Governor Lamar Alexander addressed the Tennessee Press Association in a live, statewide telecast described by him as "the most important statement of my eight years as Governor." The speech was devoted entirely to a description of a Better Schools Program, a 10-point program that he presented forthwith to the General

Assembly scheduled to reconvene a few weeks later. The ten points included in the Better Schools Program were:

1. **Basic Skills First.** A teacher-designed new elementary curriculum already in 11,366 classrooms throughout the state and consisting of 1,300 skills in reading and math, 680 of which *must* be learned. By 1990, *every* child except those severely handicapped would be required to pass the Basic Skills First eighth-grade competency test before entering the ninth grade.
2. **Computer Skills Next.** Require that every child will know basic computer skills before the ninth grade.
3. **Kindergarten for Every Child.** Require that every child must start school at the kindergarten level, even if the child does not start school until the age of six.
4. **More High School Math and Science.** Double the existing requirement of one credit of senior high school math and one of science and provide funds for the extra teachers.
5. **Special Residential Summer Schools for Gifted Juniors and Seniors.** Reward academic excellence, not just athletic excellence.
6. **Redefinition of the High School Vocational Education Curriculum.** Tie vocational training more closely to the jobs of the 1980s amd provide more adequate equipment.
7. **Classroom Discipline**. Provide alternative schools for students who disrupt classrooms and create a state-paid liability insurance program for teachers and all other school personnel.
8. **Adult Job Skill Training (Post-Secondary Level Vocational—Technical Education) under the Board of Regents.** Provide for overall management of the state's 40 community colleges, technical institutes, and area vocational schools. Most citizens over 21 will be going back to school at some point to brush up on basic skills, learn computer skills, and acquire new job skills.
9. **Centers of Excellence in Universities.** Enhance financing for first-rate programs and provide better overall support for good teaching and research. In the 1980s, good universities will spin off the ideas that spin off new jobs.
10. **The Master Teacher Program and Master Principal Program.** Develop an incentive pay system that will make teaching a fully professional career, draw the best young people into teaching, keep the best teachers and challenge them to do even better, and inspire excellence in Tennessee classrooms by rewarding the excellence of its teachers.

11. **Music in the Early Grades.** Maintain Tennessee's musical heritage in the schools. With budgets so tight, this could not be made a top ten priority, but a small state base of support will be provided and additional money will be raised.

The proposed Better Schools Program was one of the best kept secrets in modern Tennessee political history. Educational and political leaders alike were caught by surprise, a factor that may have contributed to the program's difficulty in the General Assembly. Coming only one month after the Report of the Comprehensive Education Study, the proposed Better Schools Program bore strong similarity to the recommendations of the study.

Reaction to the Better Schools Program was immediate and mixed. There was positive support for the program overall, especially from business leaders. Several educational leaders applauded the proposal as being bold, fresh, imaginative, and unique in regard to the proposed incentive teacher pay plan on a statewide basis. The Tennessee Education Association (TEA) supported several of the ten points, were neutral on a few, but objected strenuously to the master teacher and master principal component. In fact, TEA got legislative sponsorship for a bill of its own (The Professional Educator Certification Act of 1983). The prepared bill was not enacted into law.

The legislation written to enact into law the Better Schools Program was sponsored on a bi-partisan basis and assigned to the Senate Education Committee. Intense debate ensued, both in the Committee and throughout the state, centering primarily around the Master Teacher-Master Principal Program.

Only one of the ten parts of the proposed program was enacted into law by the 1983 General Assembly; namely, the act that dealt with transferring governance of the state technical institutes and the statewide system of area vocational-technical schools from the State Board of Vocational-Technical Education to the State Board of Regents. The Senate Education Committee, by a 5 to 4 vote, postponed action on the remaining nine parts until the 1984 session of the General Assembly. A House-Senate Joint Committee was appointed to study the postponed programs, the recommendations from the Tennessee Comprehensive Education Study, and other related matters, and to propose legislation aroung these matters for consideration by the 1984 General Assembly. An Interim Certification Commission was established by the Governor (The Appropriations Act of 1983) and charged with the identification of evaluation criteria along with policies and procedures necessary for making the Master Teacher-Master Principal Program operational if approved by the General Assembly.

Another surprise was to come later. Expectations were that the Better Schools legislation would receive top billing in the regular session of the 1984 General Assembly, scheduled to convene in February 1984. To the surprise of many, on January 4 1984, the Governor issued a call for the General Assembly to convene in Extraordinary Session on January 10, for the sole purpose of considering the recommendations emanating from the Select Joint Committee on Education. The Joint Committee's numerous recommendations had as their centerpiece a career ladder program for teachers and administrators; in fact, for all certificated professional personnel in grades K–12, except superintendents. In actuality, the proposed career ladder program was a revised and somewhat less controversial version of the Master Teacher-Master Principal Program proposed a year earlier by the Governor.

This session of the legislature resulted in two landmark enactments: The Comprehensive Education Reform Act (CERA) of 1984 and an Education Governance Reform Act that changed the composition, role, and function of the Tennessee State Board of Education. Eleven of the 105 sections of the CERA dealt specifically with teacher education, while many of the remaining 94 sections posed clear and significant implications for teacher education at both the preservice and inservice level.

The major provisions of the two acts are explicated and described briefly in the following pages.

The new legislation appropriated more than one billion dollars to public education during the next three years, with $401 million allocated for 1984–85. The heart of the reform package, the career ladder program for teachers and administrators, gave Tennessee the nation's first comprehensive, statewide career incentive pay system for K–12 school personnel. The new career ladder program had several key features.

- A five-step career ladder—from entry level probationary teacher to Career Level III—with corresponding pay supplements ranging from $1,000 to $7,000 annually over and above the person's regular salary.
- Advancement up the career ladder tied to rigorous evaluations at both the local level (for probationary, apprentice, and Level I teacher) and at the state level (for Career Levels II and III).
- A "probationary" entry year for new teachers prior to regular state certification followed by three years as apprentice teacher, thus giving local school authorities four years to evaluate teachers before making tenure decisions.
- A pay supplement for apprentice-level teachers (Years 2–4) designed to serve as an incentive for highly qualified young people to entice them to enter and remain in teaching.

- The establishment of a new statewide certification commission (and three subordinate regional commissions) composed of representatives from all segments of the education profession along with lay persons. The commission is charged with developing evaluation criteria, procedures, and policies for operating the career ladder system.
- A stronger and more clearly specified role for local school leaders in the process of evaluating of teachers and recommending them for certification.

The reform legislation included several provisions in addition to the career ladder program. Several of the more significant provisions are listed below:

- Increased standards for teacher training (identified and elaborated in a later section).
- Employment of teacher aides in the lower grades at a cost of $6.5 million in 1984–85.
- A 10% increase in across-the-board salary for teachers (apart from and in addition to the $50 million career ladder program).
- A restructured State Board of Education designed to assure lay governance of public education (Education Governance Reform Act).
- Extension of the school year by five additional days for classroom instruction.
- A scholarship/loan forgiveness program for persons planning careers as teachers of science and math.
- $9 million for the Computer Skills Next program to purchase computers for local schools and to help students learn to use them *before* they enter high school.
- $1.25 million for first-grade readiness (making kindergarten programs available to all pre-schoolers).
- $3.5 million to employ more math and science teachers.
- $1.4 million in new funding for programs for gifted students, music and art in the early grades, and more math and science laboratory equipment.
- $8.5 million for new equipment for the vocational education program.
- $1.25 million for alternative schools to promote classroom discipline.

- $10 million for Centers of Excellence in state supported universities.
- Increased appropriations for instructional supplies, textbooks, transportation, basic maintenance and operation, books for regional libraries.
- Establishment of a Principal-Administrator Academy to conduct a wide array of educational and training programs for school leaders. A program of the State Department of Education, training to be held in various sites throughout the state.
- Stronger and clearer directives concerning inservice education, including the specification of five (5) days (within the 200-day school year) for this purpose, with the requirement that locally developed plans must (a) link staff development activities to the Career Ladder Program, (b) be approved by the State Department of Education according to state guidelines, and (c) place top priority on the needs of beginning teachers (probationary and apprentice).

An interesting feature of the CERA was the setting forth of numerous goals for education with the stated expectation that the goals would be attained within five years after passage of the Act. The goals are comprehensive in nature and apply to most aspects of public education, K—12 and post-secondary. Several of the goals pertain to teacher education and teacher placement and assignment. Stated below in summarized forms are the goals set forth by the Act, including those directly pertaining to teacher education.

1. Each institution of higher learning shall establish, annually, measurable benchmarks as well as a list of specific achievements to be realized by the end of the fifth year and present them to a special committee of the General Assembly created by the Act. Where possible, these benchmarks and goals must have the complete agreement of the State Board of Regents, the University of Tennessee Board of Trustees, and the Higher Education Commission for the various campuses of higher education in the state of Tennessee.
2. Attainment of the following four sub-goals within five years after passage of the Act: (a) A 20% decrease in the percentage of students who enter but do not graduate from high school; (b) An improvement in performance, shown by a 10% decrease in the percent of students failing the state proficiency test, in each subject at the 9th and 12th grades; (c) A relative increase in test scores of students who take the SAT or ACT tests, with such increases expected to enable Tennessee students to rank higher

than the national average in each and every subject area or category; and (d) A 15% increase in the number of students mastering each skill in reading and mathematics as measured on the Basic Skills criterion-referenced tests in grades 3, 6, and 8.

3. Within five years after passage of the Act, the instructional program shall have been upgraded to provide measurable improvement in the subjects of Chapter II "The Basic Academic Competencies," Chapter III "Computer Competency: An Emerging Need," and Chapter IV "The Basic Academic Subjects" (all as set out in *Academic Preparation for College: What Students Need to Know and be Able to Do*, published by the College Board, 888 Seventh Avenue, New York, New York, 10106, 1983).
4. An increase in the percentage of students who enter four-year university degree programs and who subsequently earn baccalaureate degrees.
5. An increase in the scores of public entry-level students on the composite tests of ACT and SAT.
6. An improvement in standardized examination scores of graduating seniors at public universities.
7. An increase in the number of students from public universities who pass all parts of professional licensing examinations on the first attempt in fields for which a licensure examination is required.
8. An improvement in test scores of students entering graduate schools within public universities as measured by such national examinations as the GRE.
9. An increase in the measured knowledge of graduates of public university graduate and professional programs.
10. An improvement in the library holdings of the public technical institutes, community colleges, and universities.
11. For those universities whose defined role includes research, an improvement in the ranking of the public universities' research activities as measured by additional external grants and gifts received for sponsored research, (with the recognition, of course, that changes in federal research policies are beyond the control of individual institutions or the state of Tennessee.)
12. An improvement in the support given to public universities' public service programs as measured by additional external funds received for such activities.
13. An improvement in the job placement rate by specific vocational fields studied for all vocational graduates of area vocational schools, technical institutes, and community colleges.
14. An improvement in the correlation of specific vocational fields of study offered by area vocational schools, technical institutes,

and community colleges with the specific vocational needs of each service area of the state, as determined by projections of the State Departments of Planning, Employment Security, Economic and Community Development.

15. The implementation by public universities of policies that ensure that no credit toward graduation will be offered for courses that provide remediation for high school deficiencies.
16. A reduction in those courses now offered for degree credit by public technical institutes and community colleges that serve as remediation for high school deficiencies.

As stated earlier, 11 of the 105 sections of CERA pertained to teacher education and several of the goals set forth in the Act pertained to teacher preparation, retention, and placement. Provisions of the Act that dealt directly with teacher education are summarized below:

1. While acknowledging the intention to maintain a balance between the academic freedom of higher education and the need to respond to the public's expectation of quality in the state's teacher training programs, and not wishing to impose restrictions on the philosophy or course selection in such programs, the legislature reserved the authority to require of each preparation program reasonable admission and graduation requirements as set forth in the CERA.
2. Students entering teacher training programs at state institutions shall continue to be required to submit a satisfactory score on the California Achievement Test or the Pre-Professional Skills Tests. Beginning with the 1985-86 academic year, a candidate shall also be required to achieve a passing score on a standardized test of written composition. These tests shall be secure and shall be developed or acquired by the State Department of Education, validated, and administered by the Department at each institution or made available through the regular administration offered by a national testing organization.*
3. In order to assure the public that every new teacher has been adequately trained, teaching certificates shall be issued only to those students who are graduates from a Tennessee institution certified by the State Department of Education or from an out-of-state institution certified by the state in which it is located. If the state in which an institution is located does not certify its institutions, the State Department of Education may grant certificates consistent with standards applicable to Tennessee institutions.
4. Teacher education students shall spend a significant portion of three academic quarters involved in classroom observation and

teaching, such observation beginning in the sophomore year. Each student shall be assigned to a tenured teacher for guidance, evaluation, and instruction.

5. As soon as appropriate validation and standard-setting studies have been completed and the minimum qualifying score by which prospective teachers entering the teaching profession (after July 1, 1984) may enter the new certification system has been adopted for each test and announced by the State Certification Commission, all students receiving certification must have passed both (a) a core test that measures basic communication skills, general knowledge, and professional knowledge and (b) a standardized or criterion-referenced test for the desired area of endorsement. These tests shall be developed or acquired by the State Department of Education, validated and administered by the department at each institution or made available through the regular administration offered by a national testing organization. These tests shall be secure and shall be in lieu of the test prescribed earlier by the legislature (the old form of the NTE).
6. Graduates of teacher education programs who achieve a passing score on the state teachers' examination are eligible to be awarded a certificate by the State Board of Education as probationary teachers and may apply for employment in the school system of their choice. Once a passing score has been achieved and the student has received a certificate as a probationary teacher, the same test shall not be required for advancement from one career level to another.
7. Prior to the issuance of certification as an apprentice teacher, each probationary teacher must teach for a school year under the supervision of two tenured teachers assigned by the principal. If possible, at least one of the two tenured teachers shall teach in the probationary teacher's area of specialization. At the end of the school year, the candidate's evaluations will be sent to the local board of education, which will submit to the State Certification Commission a recommendation for issuance or denial of (continuing) certification. In making their decision, the State Certification Commission and the State Board of Education must consider the recommendation of the local board of education. The State Certification Commission and the State Board of Education shall be notified by the superintendent of schools of any out-of-school business, and any blood or marriage relationship between the probationary teacher and any employee of the local school system.

8. Beginning in 1986, the State Board of Education shall annually review the scores on the state teachers examination from each public and private teacher training institution. Any institution that has 30% or more of its students fail the examination for the previous year shall be so informed and placed on temporary probation. Any institution that has 30% or more of its student fail in two consecutive years shall have its state certification (approved program status) revoked by the State Board of Education. An institution may regain its certification when 70% of those students taking the examination in an academic year achieve a passing score.
9. Course requirements for subject area endorsements that certified teachers wish to acquire shall be based upon the same requirements as the initial endorsements. At the discretion of the State Certification Commission, credit shall be allowed for appropriate course work taken for initial certification. These course requirements shall be from upper division courses, or above, and from four-year institutions.
10. Beginning in the 1986–87 academic year, all courses taken toward meeting the requirements for a teacher endorsement shall be selected from those courses required for an academic major in the various fields of the arts and sciences (or from colleges of business or engineering, if applicable). This requirement shall not apply to standard methods courses or other courses designed especially for training elementary teachers.
11. All full-time college of education faculty members, including deans, are required to further their professional development through direct personal involvement in the public schools on a periodic basis. Such involvement shall take the form of inservice training activities for public school teachers, observation and evaluation of student teachers, or classroom instruction in a public school.

As indicated earlier, the several goals set forth in CERA covered teacher education as well as K–12 matters. Two of the goals that dealt with teacher education are as follows:

1. The State Board of Education, the Tennessee Higher Education Commission, the State Board of Regents, and the University of Tennessee Board of Trustees shall designate subcommittees to meet jointly (at least annually) for structured meetings to coordinate policy on matters of mutual interest about teacher education matters. An appropriate representative body of the approved private colleges and universities training teachers in Tennessee shall be invited to participate.

2. Within two years after the effective date of this Act, the State Board of Education, in cooperation with the State Certification Commission and the Tennessee Higher Education Commission, shall cause a study or studies to be made of the following matters: (a) the sufficiency of existing teacher training programs and components with a view toward successful integration of liberal arts courses, teaching level specialities, and a professional curriculum; (b) the preparation, training, and experience of higher education faculty engaged in teacher training programs with a view toward determining appropriate criteria and personnel standards and the sufficiency of those standards; and (c) the adoption of a student teaching practicum to offer direct, substantial, quality participation in teaching at the elementary and secondary teaching level over an extended period of time and under the supervision of college and elementary or secondary based personnel. When completed, these studies and any appropriate recommendations shall be filed with the appropriate Senate and House standing committees.

## SUMMARY

Recent reforms made in Tennessee education can be usefully grouped into three time frames: (a) those that occurred during the period 1975–1980; (b) those that occurred in 1981–1982; and (c) those that were attempted in 1983 but were achieved in 1984, in the Comprehensive Education Reform Act.

In the first of the three periods, both the State Board of Education and the General Assembly heightened their concerns about problems, issues, and needs in public education (including teacher education) and, relatively speaking, promulgated considerably more policies, procedures, and regulations. It was in this period, for example, that competency testing for both high school graduation and admission to teacher education programs was mandated. In retrospect, these two governmental agencies were laying the groundwork for more extensive and comprehensive educational reform efforts which, as it turned out, were to come in 1984.

Local boards of education were less active than the State Board and the General Assembly in educational reform efforts during this five-year period. State mandates and directives were accepted as implemented without a great deal of opposition, but there is little documented evidence that the changes were applauded, much less put into practice. Schools, colleges, and departments of teacher education exhibited similar responses to state initiatives. The changes were implemented, and a few of the SCDEs affected changes beyond those required by state agencies. For the

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most part, however, it is accurate to say that the reform efforts made between 1975 and 1980 were conceived and initiated at the state level.

The next era of efforts toward educational reform, 1981–1982, was also focused at the state level. The General Assembly authorized, funded, and caused to be conducted a Comprehensive Education Study, the first such study in the state in a quarter of a century. Among the Study's many recommendations were nine that related directly to teacher education, the concept of "lead teacher" being one of them. Later, in 1983, the concept was proposed by Governor Alexander as "Master Teacher." A year later, the concept was enacted into law in the form of a Career Ladder Program. Other significant developments during this reform era were task forces on teacher education conducted by the two public higher education governing boards and the Basic Skills First program embraced by the Governor and carried the length and breadth of the state by him.

The Comprehensive Education Reform Act of 1984 was a landmark in the history of education in Tennessee. In many respects the Act was a revised version of Governor Alexander's Better Schools Program presented to the 1983 General Assembly but postponed for one year by the Senate Education Committee. The CERA was far and away the state's most comprehensive and ambitious effort to improve education in the history of the state. It called for the largest increase in state funds allocated to education by any previous session of the General Assembly and the largest single tax increase earmarked for schools by any session of the Assembly.

Reform provisions covered both K–12 and higher education. The legislation reflected two legislative attitudes that had become apparent in Tennessee (as well as in several other states): that (a) taxes and appropriations for education should be increased only if accompanied by good assurances that attempts at school improvement would not be "business as usual" and "more of the same," and (b) that ways be identified and specified for educators and boards of education to be held accountable for their efforts to a much higher degree than heretofore. The Tennessee Comprehensive Education Reform Act of 1984 achieved both of these objectives. The Act established a bold and ambitious career ladder program for all certificated public school educators except superintendents. Salaries were increased by 10%, in addition to supplements for teachers in the probationary years (2–4) and supplements (up to $7,000 annually) for teachers and administrators rising to the top rung of the career ladder.

Teacher education was dealt with extensively in the CERA. Admission and exit requirements were elevated and specified. Provisions were made whereby continued program approval will be dependent upon 70%

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or more of an institution's graduates achieving satisfactory scores on the National Teacher Examinations.

Unique in Tennessee legislation action, and perhaps with respect to legislation passed in other states, the Act set forth goals that are expected to be achieved within five years after passage of the Act. Several of the goals pertained directly to teacher education and virtually all of them have implications for the preparation of teachers and administrators.

Finally, the Act established a Legislative Oversight Committee and charged it with continuing responsibilities believed to be necessary to assure that the state's mammoth effort to reform education in Tennessee will be productive and that it will endure.

## REFERENCE NOTE

*As indicated earlier, the CAT was adopted in 1978 as a required test. The State Board of Education approved the recommendation of the Commissioner of Education that effective July 1, 1985, the P-PST will be used in lieu of the CAT.

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# Section Three

# Teacher Induction

The problem of helping neophyte teachers adjust to the realities of classroom life is not new. Quite unrealistically, many educators and noneducators have assumed that teachers who complete preparation programs are ready to effectively practice pedagogical skills. The fact that most other professionals and semi-professionals work in apprenticeship roles for extended periods following completion of their education has been largely ignored. New lawyers join firms, work under experienced, more sophisticated colleagues who know the ins-and-outs of torts and litigation. Through this process, new attorneys learn what it means to practice law. Even barbers, following a training period that exceeds in hours the time spent in teacher education, are inclined to work with colleagues who have an awareness of customer needs and demands.

New teachers are no different. They need help in understanding their roles, in appreciating the culture of a school, and in determining how and when to use the pedagogical skills taught to them as part of their teacher preparation program.

Fuller's classic research on teacher concerns (Fuller & Bown, 1975) has just begun to find its way into the conditions of practice for teaching. First-year teachers, regardless of their innate abilities, are different from veteran pedagogues. The tyro wants to make it, to survive. And the efficacy of certain techniques or skills is quickly overshadowed by the question of whether those measures will make classroom life livable, even endurable. Waiting several seconds for a student to respond may theoretically enhance student achievement, but to a teacher concerned with classroom control and making it through a discussion, the potential benefits may be overridden by practical fears. Teachers with more experience, in all but a few regrettable cases, move beyond the survival consciousness; they become concerned with the nature of the task or the impact of that task on student growth. They already know (at least those using the wait time method) that wait time does not engender chaos.

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To assist new teachers as they cope with the classroom problems, teacher educators have begun to argue for the development of training programs specifically geared toward new teachers' needs. Smith and Wilson, for example, in Chapter 7 describe how the Florida Beginning Teacher Program (FBTP) fosters the improvement of successful performance for beginning teachers. The FBTP is a comprehensive and integrated system of support, training, and evaluation of generic teaching competencies used during a teacher's first year of teaching. The program blends various forms of summative and formative evaluation and utilizes the teacher effectiveness literature as a basis for teacher assessment.

The Smith and Wilson manuscript is a powerful reminder of the tremendous amount of work that must be done when policymakers determine that changes are needed in teacher education. Change, once initiated, is neither easy nor efficient. It requires massive human energy and effort, and the rewards are often unclear. However, among the potential positive outcomes of such a program is the recognition of career-long, collaborative teacher education. The power of the Florida model may rest more in its ability to bring disparate groups of educators together to work on a common goal than on its somewhat atomistic approach to teaching, where skills are identified, described, divided, subdivided, and empirically supported. The FBTP brings people together. Peer teachers, school administrators, college professors, and state department officials are working toward one goal: The enhancement of first-year teacher performance.

The Griffin chapter (Chapter 8) takes a different approach. Rather than isolating discreet teaching skills, Griffin describes in general terms the qualities of an ideal teacher: a person who demonstrates the capacity to be reflective, deliberative, and collaborative about classroom practice. Whereas Smith and Wilson stress the skills of teaching, Griffin emphasizes the qualities of a skilled teacher. Such an ideal teacher sees the "parts" of classroom teaching as they relate to the "whole" of schooling. The differences in emphasis are important because they capture the struggle that teacher educators have when they attempt to define what they want in a prospective teacher. They are constantly trying to strike a balance between the narrow and the general—a balance that dictates the assumptions undergirding professional practice.

The strength of the Griffin paper is its vision and perspective, its call for something more than assessing quality by requiring tests and counting library textbooks, and its cautions about the generalizability of research to all situations. The latter is particularly important. Few, if any, pedagogical findings have emerged for which there are counter indicators—such things as wait time or student-student interactional strategies (cooperative learning) are, apparently, efficacious regardless of the schooling context, and teacher educators and researchers have found, as yet, no negative effects on student learning. As the body of empirical findings expands and new research methodologies emerge, more prescriptions for effective teaching may be promulgated. But these guidelines will never supplant some of the craft (and art) knowledge of the profession. Every profession has such dimensions. Few endeavors are so precise and their training procedures so exact that the innate abilities of an individual and the traditions of his or her professional (veteran) colleagues fail to impinge on practice.

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# VII

# The Florida Beginning Teacher Program

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The Florida Beginning Teacher Program has two central purposes, the improvement of beginning teachers and the documentation of their successful performance. These purposes are accomplished through a comprehensive and integrated system of support, training, and evaluation of generic teaching competencies during the first year of teaching. The program has as its philosophical foundation several propositions and beliefs that are widely held by practitioners, by teacher educators, and by the general public.

First, the demands placed on teachers are greater than ever before. They have increased markedly as the result of the increasing complexity of our society and they parallel expectations for the increased performance of those who attend school. The profession is necessarily more complex than it was thirty years ago; to teach well requires a highly skilled and competent professional.

Second, there is an expanded and recognized knowledge base for teacher education. That knowledge base is the result of a substantial body of research on classroom teaching, much of which was conducted during the mid-60s through the mid-70s. During the past several years, researchers have collected these studies and assembled them in a form that has facilitated their application. Teachers and teacher educators are expected to apply this professional knowledge and to employ professional skills in their practice.

Third, there is great concern as to whether teacher preparation programs in their present form can adequately meet the demands of more rigorous professional practice. Evidence reveals that almost no major changes have occurred in the time allocated or content provided for preservice teacher education in the last 50 years, despite significant advances in the knowledge base and fundamental changes in educational structures, in schools, and in other social agencies.

Fourth, the public recognizes the vital role played by teachers in providing our youth with an acceptable level of educational opportunity. Perhaps, more than ever before, the public recognizes the impact of education on the quality of adult life. The public holds high expectations for teachers as reflected in legislative action on competency testing, merit pay, career ladders, meritorious schools, and mainstreaming. The quality of the teachers who staff our schools and the faculty for teacher preparation programs are major matters of national concern.

Fifth, knowledgeable individuals recognize that a fully developed preservice teacher preparation program that is adequate for the 21st century requires more than the traditional four-year curriculum. At the same time, others feel that extending the time for preservice teacher preparation beyond four years is not politically and economically feasible. Nevertheless, it appears that the level of interest in the adoption of five-year preservice preparation programs is increasing.

Sixth, induction into the teaching profession, as is true in other professions, is a formative and critical period. Beginning practitioners need assistance and support as well as evaluation. All beginning teachers have problems, and the problems vary with the individual and according to the setting. Preservice programs in education, and in other professions as well, are not able to prepare entering professionals for all the problems that they will encounter.

Seventh, a major reason for attrition from the profession may well stem from the lack of an integrated system of support, assistance, and evaluation available to entering professionals during the induction period. Induction too often becomes a matter of survival.

Finally, the responsibility for quality control, for deciding who can serve our youth acceptably and effectively, rests with the collective profession. It does not rest solely with teacher educators nor solely with practitioners. In the final analysis, teachers must have knowledge of the subject matter taught and essential professional knowledge, and they must be able to apply that knowledge in a professional setting. The Florida Beginning Teacher Program is designed to assist the entering teacher in the transition from being a college student to being an acceptable professional.

## LEGISLATIVE HISTORY IN BRIEF

The Florida Begining Teacher Program did not spring full bloom into life. Its roots run deep. The 1978 and 1979 sessions of the Florida Legislature addressed the issues of early participation in the classroom for students in teacher education programs and a year-long internship prior to the issuance of the regular teaching certificate. The 1981 session further addressed this concept by requiring participation in a year-long beginning teacher program rather than the internship. This program became effective on July 1, 1982.

In 1978, legislative action initiated by recommendations of the Council on Teacher Education were taken through what is widely regarded as landmark legislation, Committee Substitute for Senate Bill 549. The Legislature found that policies proposed by Florida teacher training institutions to place student teachers in the classroom as early in their undergraduate program as practicable were desirable. The act required a year-long internship, which was later to become the Florida Beginning Teacher Program. It also required an acceptable score on a nationally-normed test as a condition for admission to a teacher preparation program and successful performance on a certification examination. In 1978, that was sweeping action on a set of accountability measures that were later much more widely adopted throughout the United States (Senate Bill 549, 1978).

Committee Substitute for House Bill 1689, passed by the 1979 Legislature, provided that "beginning July 1, 1981, no individual shall be issued a regular certificate until he has completed 3 + school years of satisfactory teaching pursuant to law and such other criteria as the state board shall require by rule, or a year-long internship approved by the state board. The department, in conjunction with teacher education centers and colleges of education, shall provide for model satisfactory teaching and internship programs to be implemented in selected districts. The models shall be evaluated by the department, and the specifications for such programs shall be selected for implementation in all districts by July 1, 1981" (House Bill 1689, 1979).

During the 1981 legislative session, Committee Substitute for Senate Bill 338 was enacted. This Act provided that one requirement for the initial regular teaching certificate was successful completion of a year-long beginning teacher program. Three years of satisfactory out-of-state teaching experience could be substituted for participation in the beginning teacher program (Senate Bill 338, 1981). The Act was amended in 1983 to require that all teachers in their first year of teaching in Florida participate in the Florida Beginning Teacher Program. In 1984, the Act was amended again to permit experienced teachers who could demonstrate successful performance at any time during the first 90 days of initial employment to opt out of the full-year Florida Beginning Teacher Program requirements.

## DEVELOPMENT OF THE MODEL

The Office of Teacher Education, Certification, and Staff Development in the Department of Education has played a central role throughout the design and implementation of the Florida Beginning Teacher Program. In the process, it has mobilized the combined support and resources of school districts and colleges of education.

In September 1979, institutions of higher education and teacher education centers were requested to submit proposals that addressed the development of program models. The proposals were to address twelve specific program components related to training experiences and opportunities for inservice supervision, performance assessment, and feedback. Sixteen proposals were received and six were funded during the 1979–80 school year. Those funded represented one large district, one medium district, one small district, one multi-district teacher education center, one private university, and one state university. Models that addressed the specified elements of the program were developed and completed by each of the projects during 1979–80. Two of the projects elected not to participate in the field-testing of models during the following year. The field-testing of the other four models was completed by July 1981, and the results and supporting materials were submitted to the Office of Teacher Education, Certification, and Staff Development.

The basic framework of the Florida Beginning Teacher Program was established by recommendations developed by the Education Standards Commission, assisted by the Department of Education, with consideration of recommendations received from the educational community within the state. The Education Standards Commission advises the State Board of Education. The Commission is composed of 24 individuals: twelve teachers; two principals; one superintendent; one teacher education center director; three representatives from higher education, one of whom must be from a private institution; one community college administrator; and four lay persons, two of whom are school board members. Members of the Commission are recommended by the Commissioner of Education, appointed by the Governor, and confirmed by the Senate.

At the outset, the Education Standards Commission was concerned with supporting and documenting the successful induction of beginning teachers into the profession. Perhaps that is why in the early discussions there was interest in naming the program the Florida Beginning Teacher Support Plan. Nevertheless, the recommended program contained the following elements.

1. **The establishment of a beginning teacher support team.** The team must be comprised of three individuals: an experienced peer

teacher, a building level administrator, and a third individual who may be a teacher educator.

2. **The conduct of periodic formative evaluations.** The purpose of the support team is to conduct formative evaluations of the performance of the beginning teacher and to provide feedback designed to help the individual beginning teachers improve their performance. At least three formative evaluations must be conducted during the year.
3. **The completion of a summative evaluation.** Successful performance must be demonstrated in order for the beginning teacher, who holds a temporary certificate, to be recommended for a regular certificate. Individuals must be trained in the use of the summative evaluation instrument upon which the recommendation is based.

The recommendations for the Florida Beginning Teacher Progam made by the Education Standards Commission were drafted in State Board Rule (which has the effect of law) by the Office of Teacher Education, Certification, and Staff Development. They were subsequently adopted by the State Board of Education at its meeting in November, 1981, as State Board Rule 6A-5.75 (State Board Rule 6A-5.75, 1981).

The purpose of the Florida Beginning Teacher Program, as stated in this Rule, is to provide a set of supervised support services for teachers during their first year of teaching in Florida, to assist them in their continued professional development, and to verify satisfactory performance of the generic teaching competencies. The Rule addresses the requirements for the Beginning Teacher Program to be implemented by school districts and private schools. Included in the Rule are definitions of terms related to the program, procedures, criteria for program approval, criteria for successful completion, and appeal procedures. The Rule further requires that the plan become a section of the state-approved district Master Plan for Inservice Education, and, therefore, be subject to provisions for amending and updating the plan.

## IMPLEMENTING THE PROGRAM

A *Handbook for the Florida Beginning Teacher* to assist school districts and private school personnel with the implementation and administration of the Beginning Teacher Program was developed by the Office of Teacher Education, Certification, and Staff Development. Criteria specified in statute and data taken from the four pilot projects provide the basis of the *Handbook*. Appendices to the *Handbook* include the legislation, State Board Rule, evaluation strategies for the essential competencies, and personnel who serve as district contacts for the Beginning

Teacher Program. The purpose of the *Handbook* is to share strategies, documents, and procedures to assist school districts and private schools in the development of Beginning Teacher Program Plans.

To provide further assistance to school districts and private schools in the initial stages of implementation, program contact persons for all districts, teacher education centers, and colleges and universities were invited to attend one of eight regional meetings conducted by the Office of Teacher Education, Certification, and Staff Development during November and December 1981.

At each of the regional meetings, the *Handbook* was presented and discussed in detail, provisions of the Rule were explained, and time lines for the development of the plan were identified. The concerns of participants were gathered for consideration by the Florida Department of Education in an attempt to provide as much assistance to school districts as possible as they developed their plans. Following the regional meetings, personnel from the Office of Teacher Education, Certification, and Staff Development made approximately 30 visits to meet with planning committees in the early stages of their development of district plans.

Beginning Teacher Program Plans were submitted to the Department on or before May 1, 1982, for review. An evaluation instrument that specified criteria for each of the twelve items required in the plan was developed for the review. Teams of trained reviewers with members from the Office of Teacher Education, Certification, and Staff Development, school districts, and universities critiqued the plans. The results of the critiques were transmitted to the individuals who developed the plans.

## FLORIDA PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT SYSTEM

State Board Rule requires the verification of the demonstration of the Florida generic teaching competencies through a summative evaluation process. This requirement precipitated a concern for the development of standardized procedures for conducting systematic observation and performance evaluation of beginning teachers in Florida to ensure consistency from teacher-to-teacher, school-to-school, and district-to-district within the state. In November 1981, a number of interested professionals from Florida school districts, colleges and universities, and teacher education centers met to plan for the development of a system that would provide for the formative and summative evaluation of beginning teachers' performance in the classroom. Following this meeting, all school districts, colleges and universities, and teacher education centers were invited to participate in and contribute to a coalition effort that seemed promising, even though no state appropriation was available for this purpose.

Since its beginning, the Florida Coalition has focused its efforts on the development of a system for the measurement and development of teacher performance. The development of the Florida Performance Measurement System (FPMS) required that the knowledge relative to teacher effectiveness that has accumulated from research on teaching be so assembled and organized that it could be used in the development of a valid and reliable performance observation instrument and a corresponding set of training materials for local Beginning Teacher Support Systems. Furthermore, it was necessary that the knowledge base on teacher effectiveness be integrated with the Florida generic teaching competencies so that the conventional wisdom of the teaching profession would also be reflected in both the observation system and the training materials. This process eventually led to the revision of the Florida generic teaching competencies to reflect the research base of the Florida Performance Measurement System. To accomplish these purposes, four teams were assembled.

Team One was a research team. The purpose of this team was to review the research literature to establish a knowledge base on teacher effectiveness that was as comprehensive and consistent as the current research would permit. The team then assembled the research findings into categories or domains that addressed particular areas of teacher behavior or teaching conditions. The domains are:

1.0 Planning
This refers to teacher performance in daily, weekly, and long-range planning in the preparation phase of teaching.

2.0 Management of Student Conduct
This domain includes teacher activities that minimize the frequency of disruptive student conduct.

3.0 Instructional Organization and Development
This domain includes teacher behaviors that provide for the conservation of class time, organization and delivery of instruction, and teacher-student interaction.

4.0 Presentation of Subject Matter
This area includes teacher behaviors associated with the manipulation of the content of instruction to include learning.

5.0 Communication: Verbal and Nonverbal
This domain deals with verbal and nonverbal teacher behavior that evokes and expresses information and personal relationships.

6.0 Evaluation
This area includes the ways teachers develop and maintain an environment in which students can validly demonstrate their

knowledge, skills, etc., and receive adequate information about the quality of their test performance.

Two new domains are under development. Domain 7.0 addresses teacher behaviors in settings where the teacher is working with other professional personnel. The next domain to be developed will address teacher behaviors that promote higher levels of thinking by students.

Team Two was an Integration-Research Team. It had the responsibility of coordinating the research on effective teaching with the Florida generic competencies. A major task of the team was to determine whether or not some of the Florida competencies that are not observable in the classroom can be evaluated by some other form of assessment, such as an interview, special assignment, written document, or other items included in the beginning teacher's portfolio.

Team Two had the further responsibility of preparing a manual of suggested procedures for the documentation of those competencies not directly observable in the classroom and, therefore, not included in the observation instruments.

Team Three was the Instrument Development Team. This team had responsibility for developing the performance observation instruments based on specific behavioral indicators derived from the research-validated knowledge base. The system includes two types of instruments. The first type is a set of formative instruments, one for each of the six domains. These instruments are designed to collect data for the diagnosis of performance in a specific domain. The second type is a summative observation instrument designed to determine the extent to which the overall performance of the teacher conforms to best practice.

Team Four was the Florida Performance Measurement System Training Design Team. The primary responsibility of this team was to design a training program for preparing school administrators, peer teachers, and other educators to use the performance measurement system in a reliable manner.

In order to meet the statewide need for training, it was necessary to prepare teams of trainers capable of delivering several types of workshops with high degrees of reliability. The Coalition was directly involved in the training of university and district personnel who served as Training Leaders and Training Team Members in the delivery of training to school-level support teams.

The Coalition initiated and coordinated the following activities:

1. The selection and preparation of approximately 40 Training Leaders from universities and districts who had responsibility for conducting a variety of workshops and information sessions.

2. The selection and preparation of approximately 80 Training Team Members who worked with Training Leaders to deliver the workshops and information sessions.
3. The design, coordination, and delivery of approximately 100 workshops for the training of school administrators in the use of the performance measurement system.
4. The development of a set of manuals to be used by Training Leaders and training Team Members. The set of manuals included:
   a. The *Handbook of the Florida Performance Measurement System* (1983), which contained an extensive discussion of each domain, the subskills within each domain, and the integration of the subskills within the domain with the Florida generic teaching competencies.
   b. *Trainers Manual for the Florida Performance Measurement System* (revised 1985), which contained a narrative description of each training activity, its objectives, procedures, setting, needed equipment and materials, and typescripts of mediated events.
   c. *Participant's Manual for the Florida Performance Measurement System* (1982-out of copy), which contained the materials necessary for participants' use during the initial training workshops.
   d. The *Handbook for the Florida Beginning Teacher* (1983), which was designed to provide the beginning teacher with information about the Florida Beginning Teacher Program. It also identifies problems and suggests how the teacher might deal with the problems.
   e. The *Handbook for the Beginning Teacher's Support Staff* (1983), which contains information intended to enable members of the support services to provide assistance to beginning teachers who are demonstrating the generic teaching competencies.

## OUTCOMES OF THE FLORIDA BEGINNING TEACHER PROGRAM

The effort to develop the Florida Beginning Teacher Program has yielded encouraging results. The outcomes of the Coalition's work were both comprehensive and significant in terms of the effects on preservice and inservice teacher education; the evaluation of teacher performance; and the collaboration among teachers, administrators, school districts, teacher education centers, universities, and the Department of Education. These outcomes are described below:

1. **Improved beginning teacher performance.** Greater emphasis has been placed on the beginning teacher's demonstration of spe-

cific competencies that are related to increased student achievement and improved classroom conduct. This emphasis takes the form of systematic observation and corrective feedback followed by prescriptive inservice opportunities. Supporting data on the effects of the program on beginning teacher performance are available. For example, a study is underway to determine increase in performance from the first diagnostic observation to the final summative observation. Preliminary results for approximately 1,000 beginning teachers in 40 school districts indicate that the teacher's performance, as measured by the summative observation instrument of the Florida Performance Measurement System, will show a considerable gain in demonstration of the positive indicators on the instrument.

Data from a second study of 533 graduates of Florida-approved programs of preservice teacher education indicate that these graduates are very successful in completing the Florida Beginning Teacher Program. These graduates represent 107 approved programs in 16 public and private institutions of higher education in Florida. Five hundred and twenty-seven of these graduates, or 99 percent, were successful in completing the program.

2. **Recognition of the career-long, collaborative nature of teacher education.** The involvement of preservice teacher educators in the continuing professional education of teachers has increased as a result of the Beginning Teacher Program. Faculty members from all public universities and many private institutions have been trained in the use of the FPMS. Over half of the certified FPMS Trainers who provide training and assistance to peer teachers and administrators who serve on beginning teacher support teams are preservice teacher educators. Faculty members also serve on individual beginning teachers' support teams, provide prescribed inservice, and participate in the development of training materials for beginning teachers and support team members.

   Peer teachers and school administrators have assumed a new role as teacher educators in the school setting. This role involved observing in beginning teachers' classrooms, identifying strengths and weaknesses in their performance, prescribing and delivering needed inservice, and documenting the demonstration of essential teaching competencies.

   Teacher education centers have supported this collaborative teacher education initiative by providing inservice training in research on effective teaching, observation skills, and clinical supervision for teachers and administrators, as well as training in effective teaching for beginning teachers.

3. **Increased knowledge and skill in performance evaluation.** Over 8,000 administrators, teacher educators, teachers, and other professionals have received training in the research on effective teaching and the observation of classroom performance. Three-fourths of Florida school principals are currently listed as approved observers on the list published by the Department of Education. Teacher educators at all levels on the career ladder are now able to analyze teaching through a common set of research-based behavioral indicators and record data concerning the extent to which a teacher's performance conforms to those indicators on formative and summative evaluation instruments.

   Faculty members, school administrators, teachers, district staff members, teacher education centers, and Department of Education staff have collaborated in the development, validation, and norming of the FPMS summative observation instrument.

4. **Revision of preservice teacher education programs.** The availability of performance data on program graduates and the opportunity to work closely with districts in the implementation of the Beginning Teacher Program have served to heighten the accountability of colleges and departments of education for the performance of their students. Public and private institutions have initiated activities that reflect a concern for teaching and assessing specific competencies required of beginning teachers. Faculty members from each of the 26 institutions offering teacher education programs have been provided opportunities to participate in inservice on the FPMS and its research base. At some institutions, course outlines have been examined and revised to ensure the inclusion of information about and practice of the effective teacher behaviors drawn from research. Field experiences have been redesigned in order to provide sufficient opportunities for students to practice and demonstrate their ability to perform essential teaching competencies.

   Performance data on graduates during the second year of Beginning Teacher Program implementation are now being analyzed. This information will provide a basis for further program revision and evaluation.

5. **Development of a best-practice performance evaluation model.** The development of the FPMS and its application in the Beginning Teacher Program has provided a set of criteria and procedures to guide the design of valid, reliable, and normed performance eval-

uation systems for other programs and purposes. Several Florida school districts have adopted the summative observation instrument of the FPMS for use in the annual evaluation of all teachers. This system has recently been approved for use in the statewide Master Teacher Program.

## THE CURRENT CONDITION

The Florida Beginning Teacher Program has been in a continuous state of development and evaluation since the original model was proposed by COTE, adopted in legislation, refined by the Education Standards Commission, and subsequently implemented by the State Board of Education. The program has served as a catalyst for change in teacher education and certification in Florida. Program evaluations have yielded the following outcomes.

An evaluation of the Florida Beginning Teacher Program that was completed at the end of the first year in which the program was in effect included a survey of beginning teachers and their support staff members. There were 534 school administrators, 713 peer teachers, 386 other professional educators, and 689 beginning teachers who responded to the survey. Ninety-two percent of all respondents believed that the program was beneficial and should be continued. However, modifications to the program for experienced teachers were recommended by 45 percent of the respondents. Other recommendations made by all responding categories of participants included:

1. A clear definition of the relationship between the indicators of the Florida Performance Measurement System and the verification of the generic teaching competencies is needed.
2. The quality of school district-level communication, organization, and training needs improvement.
3. Existing resources are insufficient to effectively implement the program.
4. The program as structured is inappropriate for teachers with previous experience.
5. Beginning teacher program procedures should be reviewed.
6. Program revision and modification should be made after representative input is received from personnel who serve in special areas, such as vocational and exceptional child education.

A survey of 1983–84 beginning teachers sought information about items such as the preservice teacher education experiences of the beginner, whether the teacher was teaching in the area of certification when observed for verification of the generic teaching competencies, and the number of years of teaching experience. A total of 2,472 beginning teachers responded to the survey.

Some of the results of the survey, expressed as a percentage of the total respondents, are:

1. Teaching experience
    a. less than one year—55%
    b. one to five years—25%
    c. more than five years—18%
2. First summative observation
    —conducted while teaching in field of certification—86%
3. Final summative observation
    —conducted while teaching in field of certification—83%
4. Academic preparation outside college of teacher preparation.
    a. very effective—58%
    b. somewhat effective—28%
    c. not effective—2%
    d. not taught—10%
5. Preparation for teaching
    a. Planning of instruction
        1. very effective—52%
        2. somewhat effective—35%
        3. not effective—4%
        4. not taught—8%
    b. Control of student conduct
        1. very effective—28%
        2. somewhat effective—45%
        3. not effective—12%
        4. not taught—14%
    c. Instructional organization and development
        1. very effective—52%
        2. somewhat effective—35%
        3. not effective—5%
        4. not taught—7%
    d. Presentation of subject matter
        1. very effective—56%
        2. somewhat effective—32%
        3. not effective—4%
        3. not taught—7%
    e. Communication
        1. very effective—54%
        2. somewhat effective—35%
        3. not effective—3%

    4. not taught—7%
- f. Test-taking skills
    1. very effective—41%
    2. somewhat effective—38%
    3. not effective—7%
    4. not taught—12%
- g. Intern experience
    1. very effective—69%
    2. somewhat effective—14%
    3. not effective—2%
    4. not taught—14%

The successful induction of beginning teachers into the profession has long been of concern to those who prepare them, as well as to those who employ them. The Florida Beginning Teacher Program serves as an example of a statewide program designed to address the need for a systematic, developmental, competency-based approach to teacher education. The formative aspects of the program are designed to assist the beginning teacher in acquiring or improving teaching knowledge and skills that are essential to successful entry into the profession. The summative aspects of the program are designed to protect the public interest by establishing that the entering teacher can perform at an acceptable level of professional practice. Especially noteworthy is the fact that the indicators of effective professional practice contained in the Florida Performance Measurement System are drawn from teacher effectiveness research.

The initial purpose that the Florida Legislature sought to accomplish was to facilitate the effective entry of beginning teachers into the profession. The program was quickly expanded to include an accountability component in order to document an acceptable level of performance for entry into the profession. The implementation of the program has had an anticipated benefit: It has made the educational community much more aware of the relationship between teacher behaviors and student performance in the classroom. The program is no longer controversial; it enjoys the strong support of the Florida educational community.

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# VIII

# Crossing the Bridge: The First Years of Teaching

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My reason for using the phrase "crossing the bridge" instead of the usual "bridging the gap" in the title of this paper is that the latter phrase has an implicit negative connotation: It suggests the necessity to somehow "make up for" a condition. As will be clear from much of the text of this paper, I take a somewhat more optimistic point of view. I would like to believe that we have the necessary knowledge and skill to work with new teachers so that they can cross the intellectual and practical bridge that extends from their preservice teacher preparation programs to ongoing educational situations.

This paper consists of three sections. In the first, I will suggest a starting point for the development of programs aimed at strengthening the professional power of new teachers. In the second are included ways to promote the accomplishment of that increased power with and for new teachers. The final section advances a set of broad-gauged proposals for action by educators, policymakers, and researchers. Each section is begun and organized by a question.

What follows emerges out of almost three decades of experience in educational settings, from classrooms and schools through involvement with national agencies, universities, and broad-scale research and development efforts, including ones aimed at teacher education in preservice, induction, and inservice situations. Some of the content of this paper can be supported by research, some by disciplined observation, and some by values held by me and by others regarding the role of elementary and secondary education in the United States. In combination, the content is a point of view that may be helpful in thinking of the teacher education aspects of a person's first years of teaching.

## WHAT DO WE WANT TO ACCOMPLISH WITH NEW TEACHERS?

As is true for most, if not all, institutional endeavors in a complex society and during a period of competing claims for resources, it is difficult to sort out the "ends" that are, or might be, widely agreed to by persons inside and outside educational institutions. This is certainly true of schools where shrinking enrollments, declining public confidence, and sharply-framed questions about effectiveness are tied, at least implicitly, to reduced funding. As school people move through their work lives and are increasingly caught up in what might be called "band-aid therapy," not to mention the "administrivia" of daily business, they too often neglect long-term goals in favor of immediately pressing short-term ones.

I agree with the Holmes Group in its assessment that teacher education has been left by the wayside in a sort of third-class citizenship status as colleges and universities have pursued the more typical higher education goals associated with research productivity. The Holmes Group members, most of whom are from prestigious, research-intensive universities, hold that teacher education must assume a central role in higher education institutions.

I also agree with the Holmes Group in its contention that for teacher education to undergo profound and meaningful changes, it is necessary to institute a vigorous re-examination of what kinds of schools and what sorts of teachers are most desired for this country.

Consequently, I will offer a brief characterization of an "ideal" teacher, a picture that provides some substance and a sense of direction for the recommendations that follow with regard to working with new teachers during their first years of teaching.

The personal attributes over which teacher educators have little control once a person is accepted into a school setting as a teacher, must be sorted out from the professional skills, knowledge, and values that have been and continue to be more amenable to educational intervention. Much of the current criticism of teachers, new and experienced, focuses on personal attributes such as ability to learn, general intellectual capacity, and the like. I do not believe we should ignore these criticisms. We should, instead, assess carefully their basis in truth. Are teachers, in general, unaccomplished learners, persons who have not mastered the most basic of communication and numerical skills? I think not. But we must devise means beyond the most simplistic ones, to be able to answer that question with greater surety.

Given the possibility that there are new teachers who are truly characterized as "the least and the dullest" rather than "the best and the brightest," I take a position that the ideal teacher is someone who can provide evidence that he or she is an accomplished learner, someone who has demonstrated the ability to do what will be expected of students in elementary and secondary schools. Moreover, I look for proof that this new, ideal teacher has a value toward continuing to learn, as a unique individual in a complicated society, as well as a member of an important occupational group in the culture. Evidence to support such claims lies in myriad communication skills as well as in college transcripts, in human interactions as well as in diplomas and certificates, in points of view as well as in performance on the National Teacher Examination.

In terms of professional skills, knowledge, and values, the ideal teacher is one who has, or is, working diligently toward a firm grasp of basic pedagogical skills. By basic, I mean those teacher behaviors that, without which, little learning can be accomplished by students in classrooms. These include organizing and managing the classroom, diagnosing individual learner strengths and weaknesses, grouping students for the purpose of achieving efficiency of instruction (as opposed to "sorting" students according to personal preferences), selecting appropriate instructional resources, maintaining a safe environment for learning, providing conditions in which there is a fundamental respect for students, and understanding and responding to curriculum requirements that are in place in the system, the school, and the classroom.

But these are the most elementary of expectations, ones that are probably accomplished more by training than by education. Beyond them is a set of expectations that are probably more difficult to achieve, less easily measured, and not so readily articulated (or agreed to). I believe that the best teacher is one who is reflective, deliberative, and collaborative. These three words subsume a host of behaviors and values; they provide an orientation to doing the work of teaching as well as force making that orientation a reality.

By *reflective*, I refer to the teacher who takes seriously the need to think systematically and carefully about his or her actions, knowledge, and positions to provide educational opportunities to students. The reflective teacher is someone who looks at student behavior in relation to teacher behavior and not as an unrelated phenomenon that somehow exists outside of the teacher's sphere of influence. The reflective teacher uses a variety of information to think about teaching and learning and schooling. He or she is "with it" in the best sense of the phrase, aware of subtle as well as dramatic shifts in student attention, classroom climate, and responsiveness to instructional materials. Such a teacher is also aware of the philosophic currents in the local community and the broader society, and the explicit and implicit needs for knowledge and skill required by students. He or she collects information and *uses* it. The reflection on the information can be immediate, as in the case of abandoning a pre-set lesson on "our Colonial past" when an unusually beautiful butterfly flutters at the window of the classroom. Likewise, the teacher reflects on an accumulation of information about events, test scores, student responsiveness, and the like, so that he or she can make critical instructional decisions based on personal professional knowledge rather than on an impersonal prescribed curriculum.

The teacher who is *deliberative* is one who consistently uses the products of reflection. As implied above, the deliberative teacher understands the basic and fundamental relationship between good judgment, the demands of the schooling situation, the nature of pedagogy, and the characteristics of the students in the classroom. The outcomes of a deliberative stance about teaching can be seen in many classrooms in the United States as teachers work alone or together to "make the best of a bad lot" or to make more positive classrooms that are already satisfying learning places. This may take the form of a new piece of curriculum, the discovery of additional resources to support learning, or the devising of particularly relevant ways to reward student accomplishment. At issue here, of course, is the truism that seldom does any professional deserve professional status by only preserving what is—almost by definition, a professional is one who moves the profession forward. This is the outcome of deliberation and reflection.

Schools seem to have been constructed, physically as well as organizationally, to prevent *collaborative* behavior on the part of teachers and administrators. Teachers are isolated from one another by classroom walls, lockstep schedules, restricted (or non-existent) opportunities to interact around issues of teaching and learning, and they are often reduced to the level of servants of bureaucratic policies and procedures. And yet quite clearly the most effective schools and the most effective teachers are characterized by a high level of interaction and collaboration, not just in terms of personal regard for one another on social occasions, but also in terms of professional activity. This activity is focused upon the best means to work together toward accomplishing the important goals of schooling. Teachers who collaborate are teachers who share their best practices, who work toward ameliorating their frustrations, who concentrate on developing shared understandings and values, and who keep at bay or to a minimum barriers to working interactively.

This brief picture of an ideal teacher suggests someone who is skillful and knowledgeable about the work of teaching, is continuing to learn about that work, is thinking about his or her activities such that decisions are made based more on evidence than on whimsy, is accumulating information for the purpose of using it as a means to advance the science and art of teaching, and is working with others toward identifying and solving the dilemmas that have and will forever characterize large-scale efforts to educate a citizenry.

## HOW CAN THE INDUCTION PERIOD OF TEACHER EDUCATION CONTRIBUTE TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE IDEAL TEACHER?

Although most of us have known beginning teachers who bring the attributes and characteristics I have mentioned to teaching, those instances are probably very few. If this is true, it becomes important to think carefully about how persons new to teaching can be helped during their first years to begin the difficult but rewarding path toward excellence in teaching. I will suggest only four areas of activity that seem to have promise.

### Influential Selectivity

The current state of affairs, as reported in the popular press as well as in some educational circles, suggests that nothing much can be done about the so-called inferior quality of teachers entering the profession or about students entering the programs of preparation that lead to certification. This doomsday scenario, obviously, does not appeal to a number of us.

The major issue for many concerned about teacher effectiveness involves the knowledge and skill directly related to doing the work of teaching and involves enhancing the depth and breadth of the new teacher's understanding of curriculum issues, strengthening the new teacher's grasp of what research says about teacher effectiveness, increasing the tyro's skills of relating in positive ways with students and colleagues, and engendering an awareness of resources that are most powerful in the promotion of learning. These and many other phenomena are essential to being a good teacher. Further, they are essential outcomes of teacher education programs. Parenthetically, they are touched lightly, if at all, by most current tests for prospective teachers.

The term "influential selectivity" suggests more than a simple or not-so-simple sorting device aimed at prospective or new teachers. It suggests that practitioners, policymakers, and professional organizations engage in a much more thorough examination of teacher preparation programs than has been typical. We must sort out those programs of teacher preparation that do, or appear to, produce teachers whose knowledge and skill we value from those that do not. Our standards must rise above and move beyond numbers of books in college libraries, labels tacked on to courses, professorial testimony about course content, and so on. We must get involved with the programs of preparation so that we not only know about what goes on but also what consequences result. We must develop a set of partnerships that join together the interests and concerns of the various parties so that rational decisions can be made about such vital issues as teacher selection (some programs simply do not have high enough admission standards and, therefore, their graduates probably will not possess requisite academic skills), program approval (although difficult to admit, it is a growing realization on the part of some that selected programs should probably be shut down despite the fiscal realities of keeping teacher education alive from selfish institutional interests), program renewal (activities designed to bring a program in alignment with strong and clearly stated expectations), and increased allocations of resources (keeping alive and strengthening the best programs of teacher preparation).

The selectivity proposal is not meant to be Draconian or unduly harsh. It is meant to provide a public and explicit charge to teacher educators. Many of us in this country are ready and willing to work together toward high quality teacher preparation so that new teachers can become more effective teachers.

Selection, then, should be viewed as a dual opportunity in relation to the appointment of new teachers: the teacher candidate is required to provide necessary evidence of potential, and the teacher preparation institution is required to provide evidence regarding the knowledge and skill expected by the program of the teacher candidate.

## School and Teaching-Focused Initiation of the New Teacher

New members of every professional or occupational group are initiated into the workforce in some manner or another. The nature of those entries differ, of course, but the general intent is usually, on the one hand, to welcome the novice and, on the other, to use the initiation as a way to ensure that the newcomer is helped to be successful during his or her first days or years of service.

In school systems, of course, the intention is for new teachers to move easily into classrooms and schools and then to demonstrate their skills as teachers. Unfortunately, the initiation rites for new teachers are often haphazard and confounding. It is not uncommon for new teachers to be confronted with a maze of non-teaching, non-school issues upon entry and then to be left to their own devices to teach an as yet unknown group of young people. This approach can be described as "sink or swim" or "it's up to the teacher to use his or her best judgment; we don't interfere." Either way, it is an unacceptable means to ensure quality instruction and a probable death blow to many newcomers to teaching.

Four lessons have been learned about beginning teacher entry into school settings. These lessons are supported in some measure by research and to a greater degree by testimony and observation.

First, minimize the procedural and emphasize the pedagogical. Use the new teacher's first hours and days in the system to focus on what schooling and teaching *mean* in the system. Talk with (not at) the new teachers about the central issues of curriculum requirements, instructional materials, approaches to instruction, expectations for learning, nature of the local community, characteristics of students, support systems, and the like. Focus on what teaching is and can be.

Second, provide immediate support to the new teacher in the form of the best experienced teacher in the same area or at the same grade level. These experienced teachers, often called "peer teachers" or "helping teachers," can be personal as well as professionally skillful lifesavers. They know where the materials are, have information about students, understand the way the school "works," have a command of the subject matter to be made present to students and, in general, can help the newcomer with the maneuvering necessary to begin to fit into a complex organization.

Third, provide careful and thoughtful training for the peer teachers. Because someone works very effectively with first grade students, that is insufficient reason to suspect that he or she will be equally effective with another adult. Because an experienced teacher is powerful in one school, it does not necessarily follow that he or she can translate that power into a comfortable (and comforting) relationship with a novice. Teachers typically work with persons considerably younger than themselves. They also have had limited experience, in most school settings, in working with other adults. And, unfortunately, many have settled into a routine that, by its very nature, militates against demonstrating the aforementioned qualities of deliberation, reflection, and collaboration.

Peer teachers should be selected because of their potential for helping the beginning teacher be effective. They should then be helped to understand and enact the strategies best suited to working with another adult toward achieving that effectiveness. The informal "buddy" system may provide a comfort level for new teachers. A more formal, and highly regarded and rewarded, peer teacher system places demands upon the new teacher and upon the peer teacher and the system.

Fourth, provide support for the peer teacher-new teacher interaction. New teacher programs are proliferating around the country. Some acknowledge the need to provide a support system for the program, others assume that just connecting the new teacher to a more experienced one is enough. Still others have in place an elaborate observation and consultation system that demands, and sometimes receives, equally elaborate support systems in terms of real and ceremonial resource allocation. As a general rule, one might suggest that the more precise and formal the expectations for the new teacher-peer teacher interactions and outcomes, the more extensive the support necessary to accomplish them.

### The Knowledge Bases for Working with New Teachers

Earlier in this paper, I noted that some college and university programs of teacher preparation appear to be inadequate. This generalized conclusion can also be made about school settings. In the same ways that institutions of higher education sometimes fall behind in their acquisition and use of knowledge about effective teaching and schooling, school systems also frequently rely too much upon locally-produced folk wisdom about what is best for students and teachers in their classrooms.

At least four knowledge bases should be used in working with beginning teachers and, for that matter, with all persons concerned about teaching and learning. First, the past two decades have produced a considerable body of information about effective instruction and effective schools. The largest part of that information is the direct result of disciplined inquiry supported by the National Institute of Education and carried forward by the research and development center and regional laboratory network. This knowledge ranges from effective classroom management and organization to the ways that language influences instruction to effective delivery systems for instruction. We are much more sanguine about the most powerful ways to approach instruction than we were when many of us began our careers in education. We must capitalize upon what we now know. And we can only realize the potential for that knowledge if it is a part of the repertoire of those charged with working with newcomers—that holds for school officials as well as for peer teachers and for leaders in teacher organizations as well as for school board members.

As with all such dicta, however, there remains a caveat to be addressed in relation to research-derived knowledge about teaching and learning. Partly due to the inadequate funding for this line of research and partly due to the inadequacies of the methodologies available to accomplish the research agendas, much of the research has been quite situation-specific. That is, findings are directly applicable only to populations very like the ones in which the original research was conducted. To generalize an effective teaching strategy, for example, that was discovered to be true with urban, third grade children to suburban eleventh grade science students is problematic. The other part of the caveat is that much of the effectiveness research has been correlational. That is, existing conditions were found to contain relationships between certain teacher behaviors and certain student outcomes. Only recently have experimental studies been aimed toward inducing the relationships in other settings and testing for the "reality" of the desired outcomes.

The lesson for those engaged in or planning for new teacher programs, then, is to treat research findings with caution. And, even more important, to become skillful research consumers so that when research-derived expectations for teachers, new or experienced, are a part of a teacher education program, they can be defended.

A second knowledge source for new teacher programs comes from another body of educational research referred to as the effective schools research. This line of inquiry has attempted to identify those school level characteristics that are related to positive aspects of school life such as student outcomes, school climate, teacher professionalism, and the like. It is entirely possible that from this body of findings can be extracted guidelines and procedures for use in developing programs for new teachers. For example, there is some evidence that professional colleagueship (as differentiated from personal regard) among a school staff is positively associated with school effectiveness. If this is the case, and I believe that it is, a new teacher program would have as one of its central characteristics the introduction and maintenance of the standard of peer interactions around professional matters. It would promote the practice of teachers working together, planning and evaluating together, and trying out new ideas together. It would place new teachers in situations that called for them to be contributing (rather than receiving) members of the school community. It would work toward institutional status for all members of the school community, including novice teachers.

A third body of knowledge in working with new teachers is more typical of current practice. This is what can be called "craft knowledge." Craft knowledge is the information that is not necessarily derived from systematic, disciplined inquiry, but evolves from observations of teachers over time. Teachers describe it as "what works." Even though there are some claims that teaching is becoming more of a science, with underpinnings drawn from research efforts, it is still more likely that teaching is carried forward by the consequences of individual trial and error. New teachers must not be left to discover for themselves, often at painful cost, what others have found out before them.

The isolation of teachers that was mentioned earlier must be eliminated before it is possible for craft knowledge to be transmitted from one teacher to another, from experienced teacher to newcomer. The peer teacher strategy may help with this, but it is only a limited approach. New teachers should be put into settings where there are multiple interactions with a number of teachers, settings where the chief topic of interaction is the matter of schooling—instructional approaches, curricular strategies, diagnostic and prescriptive behaviors, instructional materials development, and the like. The key is the integration of the new teacher into the best of the culture of the school setting.

The last body of knowledge is, perhaps, the most controversial. It is that diverse and often conflicting set of values and beliefs about what teaching, teachers, and schools should be about. Although it appears that some believe that teaching and schooling are neutral and value-free, we know that such is not the case. The ways that teaching and schooling move forward are driven, or ought to be driven, by a set of shared beliefs about best practice. Those beliefs may be buttressed by research or by craft knowledge. They may also be supported by a genuine and well thought out conception of what used to be called "the good life" in relation to the broader society. Recent years have seen the domination of a belief that schools are places where the so-called basics should be the heart, if not the entire body, of teaching and learning. We have found, to our dismay, that this attention seems to have diminished students' problem-solving abilities, their skill in logical deduction, and their approach to complex issues. Moreover, there is growing testimony from teachers that the consequences of the lockstep approach to ensuring basic skills on the part of students has made their roles those of automatons instead of professionals and passive pawns instead of active decision makers.

New teachers must be introduced to and helped to enter into the important dialogue of what schools should be accomplishing and how they should be a part of that accomplishment. They must, from the first, be involved in debates about the role of schools in the national culture. They must be helped to understand the vital role they play in molding the future of this country.

## WHAT POLICY AND ADMINISTRATION STRATEGIES SHOULD BE ADOPTED?

This paper touches upon selected pieces of the complex puzzle of teacher education, particularly with regard to the induction phase. Even so, it is necessary to think about institutional decisions that will enhance even these few parts of the puzzle. What follows is a set of recommendations for helping new teachers "cross the bridge" from professional preparation programs to ongoing classrooms and schools.

1. **School systems and colleges of education must become more collaborative in terms of what they know, what they believe necessary for teachers to know, and how they accomplish their common objectives.** The isolation of higher education from public and private elementary and secondary schools is, naturally, a consequence of dramatic and complicated institutional differences. Those differences must be put aside, however, in order to

achieve the common aims associated with preparation for profession.

2. **A stance of aiming toward excellence, as opposed to ensuring minimum competence, should be taken in regard to working with new teachers.** To select a lowest common denominator as a standard for new teachers is to ignore the challenges of teaching as well as to ignore the strong possibility that such a standard will become the guideline for years and years of professional practice. To aim toward excellence is to evaluate instead of inspect, to involve instead of isolate, to promote risk-taking instead of the preservation of the *status quo*, to celebrate change instead of fearing it, to concentrate on growth instead of remaining static, to acknowledge instances of excellence instead of ignoring them, and to make teacher involvement in decision making the norm, not the exception.
3. **Existing models of new teacher programs must be studied thoroughly and over time.** These models range from the highly technological to the informal and local. Some demand complex understandings of participants; others depend upon tacit understandings among parties. Some are large-scale and grandiose, others very situation-specific. Some rely heavily upon research-derived knowledge; others rely more on what participants collectively believe to be true. We are only recently becoming more understanding of the complexities associated with providing effective instruction. Part of that understanding is related to the needs of new teachers, but not enough. Research in teacher education generally needs more attention from both the community of academic scholarship and the community of practice.
4. **New questions must be framed and new answers must be found.** It was not very long ago that teaching and schooling were looked upon as relatively simple phenomena. Someone taught someone else something in a place called school. We are now much more sophisticated in our acknowledgement that teaching and schooling are enormously complicated enterprises. With that sensitivity in mind, we can ask more appropriate questions and, one hopes, derive better answers.
5. **We must become increasingly adamant that teacher preparation programs graduate new teachers who hold realistic and well-articulated expectations for effective teaching.** This will force us into uncomfortable postures about standards for accreditation of teacher education programs, the enforcement of those standards, and the abandonment of a "laissez-faire" attitude toward teacher preparation.

6. **We, as a nation and as a community of professionals within the nation, must recognize that excellence in education and in working with new and experienced teachers will depend, in large measure, upon the willingness to allocate resources in amounts equal to the task.** This willingness will have to be present at all levels of the society from the federal government to the local communities. There is, we know, no quick fix for institutions in jeopardy. And, schools in our country are in jeopardy. The next decade is the time to make significant differences in how teaching and schooling are carried forward. We can use this opportunity in many ways, one of which is the recognition that educational opportunities for new teachers should and can be powerful influences upon education practice.

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# Section Four

# The Future

The future of teacher education is uncertain. But if it is true, as author John Fowles suggests, that uncertainty is invigorating, not enervating, then this condition may auger well for teacher educators. Given all the critics' claims and the acrimonious complaints of individuals such as Alfred Bester (1956), few have called for the total demise of teacher education. Most recognize that some common sense is nonsense and that those not formally prepared to face the demands and complexities of teaching may end up doing, even unintentionally, more harm than good. Further, many who lack training may not have the coping skills necessary to deal with the problems of classroom teaching.

Assuming that teacher education is a given and that people who aspire to work with young people will always need some specialized skills, then those who hold the title "teacher educator" had best take cognizance of variables that may subsequently influence practice. Some of those variables are discussed in Chapters 9 and 10.

Howey, in his chapter titled "The Next Generation of Teacher Preparation Programs," discusses problems that may drive substantive change in teacher education. All are important, but one warrants special note. It deals with the question of demographics—population trends and racial patterns. Howey describes the largely white, monolingual, and parochial perspective of teachers in American classrooms, a circumstance that is being exacerbated by testing programs that screen out minority teacher candidates. Most teachers do not want multiracial situations and few are interested in urban placements. Our society is confronted with a white teacher population that wants to teach a white student population. The problem is further compounded given the tendency toward differential teacher behavior in mixed race situations (see, for example, Eaves, 1975) and the tendency of mainstream culture teachers to favor students who share their cultural values (see Gouldner, 1978). Unless such conditions are corrected, the gains in the knowledge base of teaching may be obviated by the emergence of an underclass that is wary of schools and the intentions of teachers.

Howey also discusses several constraints to change: (a) The limited integration of a strong foundation in the arts and sciences with programs of teacher preparation; (b) The limited integration of a strong clinical component throughout programs of teacher preparations; (c) The limited commitment of the best of our teachers and K–12 schools to the preparation of teachers, especially throughout clinical activities; (d) The lack of institutional characteristics and organizational features that provide coherence to programs and a sense of programmatic colleagiality among faculty and students; (e) The limited number of courses and credits that define the scope of programs of teacher education.

Considered collectively, the constraints highlight the tendency toward professional isolationism, even though the reasons for such a circumstance are sometimes understandable. Teacher educators isolate themselves from colleagues in other colleges and professional schools, due, in part, to a difference in mission. Schwebel (1985) suggests, for example, that the mission of the arts and science faculty is to reproduce the elite leadership of the nation and to produce new knowledge in the interests of government and the economy. By contrast, the "mission" of the education faculty is to reproduce the mass of workers and the unemployed.

Teacher educators also experience isolation (or estrangement) within their own program areas. Courses are often poorly sequenced or activities are inadequately articulated because of the absence of faculty dialogue and discussion, what Nolan (1985) terms the "isolated professor tradition":

> According to the [program] instructors, the strength of major universities has been the idiosyncratic characteristics and strengths of individual faculty members. The best way to insure tenure and promotion has been for a faculty member to build a specialized area of expertise in a rather narrow area of research. Instructors may feel that change is imminent, but an intransigent tradition has made it relatively easy for faculty members to isolate themselves in their own areas and to avoid interaction with other faculty members. (p. 14)

Some "countering" of the culture of teacher education isolationism is occurring. For example, Howey discusses clinical professorships—roles that entail the direct involvement of teachers in teacher preparation. Programs geared toward this practice are emerging and being discussed in the professional literature. The Visiting Instructors Program at Cleveland State University (CSU) is but one example, and although it is not discussed by Howey, it is worthy of note. Annually, outstanding teachers are nominated by Cleveland area school districts to serve for a year as regular full-time faculty members in the undergraduate preparation of teachers at CSU. The "visiting" (clinical) professors join the CSU faculty, begin teaching classes, and have the opportunity to share with students more directly the intangible rewards and benefits of teaching. Further, they begin to develop, as Howey argues, an ownership in the profession and a responsibility for those who engage in professional practice. In a description of the CSU program, Takacs and McArdle (1984) write:

> Perhaps the most important implication for this type of program is our growing conviction of just how much teacher educators and school personnel have in common. This program illustrates that the split between practicing professionals and the ivory tower is a misconception. The outstanding practitioners who join CSU each year do not feel, contrary to widely circulated reports, that teacher training is weak or that college professors are out of touch. In this setting, they share ownership of the curriculum and they applaud what teacher educators are doing. The result is a happy one: all involved have become much more congruent and mutually supportive. (p. 14)

One premise of programs such as the CSU visiting clinical professor program is that teaching is a craft, something that can be learned, in part, when prospective teachers have opportunities to work with veteran pedagogues. The premise is not unique to CSU. Indeed, many of the recent legislative and instructional reforms contain a similar thrust.

The power of the Gideonse chapter is the description of the dominant premises, or "guiding images," that undergird teacher preparation programs and that pervade the extant professional literature. The potency of the Gideonse piece is not the articulation of images, since these exist in other forms and with greater conceptual depth (see, for example, Tom, 1985); rather, the power is in his description of how multiple visions within the profession (and within faculties) militate against clear direction for practice. The lack of a common vision prevents teacher educators from realizing even the simplest of goals.

Gideonse argues that the teacher-as-decision-maker image is the most logically and empirically valid. Whether this is true is arguable. Depending on one's perspective (i.e., Tom's moral craftsman or Gage's applied scientist), almost any of the images could be convincingly proffered. What cannot be questioned is the lack of program homogeneity in most teacher education programs. The multiple perspectives leave students perplexed and dismayed. The absence of a common framework or vision engenders, in many, cynicism and enmity. Gideonse calls educators to adopt the decision maker image. But what may be necessary is the adoption of a common image, any image, regardless of its theoretical or practical nature.

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# IX

# The Next Generation of Teacher Preparation Programs

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## THE KNOWLEDGE BASE IN PERSPECTIVE

This chapter will focus on likely additions to or modifications in the next generation of teacher preparation programs, especially those of an empirically-supported nature. Such a focus is complicated if only because of the variety of teacher roles in our elementary and secondary schools and the range of instructional responsibilities teachers assume. These roles vary, often dramatically, and are differentiated in a number of ways. There are teachers who foster growth in the very young and those who work largely with young adults. There are those who teach persons with conditions that greatly constrain or handicap their ability to learn and those who interact largely with youngsters of exceptional ability. There are teachers who instruct largely through very different media including music, machines, art, and athletics. There are those who teach in settings where youngsters reflect considerable cultural homogeneity and others who daily are in the midst of very considerable racial and cultural diversity. Finally, there are those who instruct across a spectrum of subject areas and also those who specialize in but one academic discipline. Too often these major differences in teacher role and responsibility are ignored in discussions of the knowledge base in teaching and possible changes in teacher education.

Certainly it is beyond the capacity of this writer and the scope of this paper to address the manifold changes in the many areas or domains of knowledge related to the myriad functions embedded in these different teaching roles. Neither is it an easy task for any one individual to be inclusive or precise in identifying advances in recent research and development that appear to pertain to any teacher (and hence any teacher preparation program) regardless of that teacher's assignment or function. One procedure in terms of the task assigned to me would have been to provide a brief explication of the salient findings from those various research studies that apply to core tasks of most teachers and suggest where these might be incorporated into programs of teacher education. I have chosen not to proceed in this manner for two major reasons.

First, excellent reviews of these findings are provided in two recent volumes. One of these publications is an outgrowth of the 1982 Annual Meeting of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and presents reviews of the literature by a number of distinguished scholars. This volume is titled *Essential Knowledge for Beginning Educators.* It was edited by David Smith and published by AACTE in conjunction with the ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education in 1983. The second recent publication that provides thorough reviews of these various research studies is a special issue of *The Elementary School Journal.* The editor of that journal, Thomas Good, has a long and distinguished history of studying teachers and teaching and solicited excellent state-of-the-art reviews from leading scholars.

I will conclude this paper by identifying a number of scholars whose work has assisted in identifying new understandings and guiding principles related to core tasks of most teachers. Five major areas where this recent research informs the art and science of teaching appear to be readily identifiable. The first of these research literatures is concerned with the culture and climate of schools and how what transpires at the all-school level contributes to the effectiveness of individual teachers in individual classrooms. A second area of empirically-based literature contributes to a fuller understanding of the ecology of the classroom, especially the nature and complexity of common academic tasks in which students engage. A third literature speaks to what we have learned recently about how young people grow and develop and especially how they tend to think at different ages relative to different school tasks. A fourth research literature contributes to a more complete understanding and description of those patterns of teacher behavior found to be effective in promoting greater-than-expected achievement from students. Corollary to this last research literature are the recent insights gained in how to effectively manage a classroom and to alter the social dynamics of the classroom in constructive ways.

To be sure, this empirically supported literature represents but a partial review of research related to common and core functions of teachers. The beginning literature relating the way in which teachers make decisions as they interact with students in the classroom could be included.

Advances in teaching methodology embedded in or wedded to the teaching of specific subjects are not reviewed, and no attention is given to the expanded knowledge base of how factors external to the school bear upon the work of teachers.

The second major reason that I chose not to address the topic of the next generation of teacher preparation programs solely as a review of recent research findings is a prior concern for how these programs generally might be altered, if not expanded, to accommodate these and other additions to our knowledge base. I believe there is substantial agreement among informed scholars about the relevance of much recent research for teacher preparation. It is also increasingly likely that changes in teacher preparation will be driven by tests of common or essential teacher knowledge and one hopes such tests will be tied to this empirical-based literature. Whether these research findings will greatly impact programs of teacher preparation in the near future is nonetheless problematic from this perspective. There are well-documented, sustaining conditions that militate against the effective adaptation of new knowledge to practice in programs of teacher preparation and deter large scale improvements. Thus, those conditions will be addressed first in projecting changes in the next generation of teacher preparation.

## CONSTRAINING CONDITIONS IN TEACHER PREPARATION

The level, quality, and commitment of resources vary considerably across the more than 1200 institutions offering programs of teacher preparation and contribute to the problem of projecting changes. This is not to say that smaller institutions, whether alone or as part of any number of consortium arrangements do not at present and cannot in the future offer high quality programs reflecting state-of-the-art curriculum and instructional practice. Nor does this suggest that when teacher preparation is embedded in institutions with a knowledge production mission that they, de facto, serve as flagships of teacher preparation. We know far better than that. I do however concur with what Clark (1984) identified as one of the major consequences of teacher education being everybody's business when he writes:

> This pattern of proliferation (1) dilutes the modest personnel and fiscal resources of the field, (2) impedes reform efforts that require upgrading of professional standards at the institutional level, and (3) divorces the bulk of the training programs from centers of knowledge production about education.
>
> The omnipresence of teacher education in higher education is linked to four other characteristics of the field: (1) the lack of selectivity of teacher education candidates, (2) the placement of this teacher training at the under-

> graduate level, (3) the low level of fiscal support for teacher training, and (4) the lack of a tradition of scholarly inquiry in the field. (p. 8)

In addition to the concerns underscored by Clark, I have identified five additional problems that I believe are of considerable magnitude in most institutions that prepare teachers:

1. The limited integration of a strong foundation in the arts and sciences with programs of teacher preparation.
2. The limited involvement of the best of our teachers and K-12 schools in the preparation of teachers, especially throughout their clinical activities.
3. The limited integration of a strong clinical component throughout programs of teacher preparation.
4. The lack of institutional characteristics and organizational features that provide coherence to programs and create a sense of institutional and programmatic colleagiality among faculty and students.
5. And finally the limited numbers of courses and credits that define the scope of many programs of teacher education, especially those reflecting recent understandings derived from studies of teaching and schooling.

That these are largely neither new nor uncommon concerns is readily apparent to anyone concerned with teacher preparation. The hue and cry concerning the need for higher standards and for a more substantive and protracted curriculum was underscored, for example, in a description of a series of what were viewed as *milestone* teacher education conferences held in the late 1950s.

> [T]here ran one main theme (throughout these conferences): Whatever may be the proper ingredients of courses and hours in a teacher's education, they cannot all be jammed into a four-year program. The teacher needs a broader and deeper education than ever before: if this means five, six, or even seven years of preparation, that is the way it will have to be. Part of this theme was the call from all concerned for much higher professional standards, with the insistence that higher standards will lure more, not fewer, capable students into the field. (Hodenfield and Stinnett, 1961, p. 31)

Why is it that wise women and men over several generations have identified these problems in the initial education of teachers, suggested what appear to be appropriate, albeit not always easily achievable, means for alleviating these problems and yet appear to have made but limited progress in so many instances? Certainly the large number of programs, many of which are lacking the resources and commitment to change, as Clark has suggested, is a major contributing factor. Another possibility is that major problems in K-12 schools have not been linked directly by powerful political forces, including the general public to teacher education. This appears to be changing today but whatever the reality of the present situation, I suggest that conditions in the not-too-distant future will further magnify present shortcomings and provide even more impetus for change.

## THE CHANGING GLOBAL DEMOGRAPHY

Present demographic trends could have a profound impact on teacher education and result in a strong coalition of advocates for this endeavor. The social context of teaching has changed dramatically in the last 50 years as the study of the social context of teachers in the late 1930s should illustrate. While this was reported as a national study, obviously the teachers described below tended to teach in smaller rural communities:

> As to conduct, teachers, board members, students, and laymen were asked to indicate their approval or disapproval of teachers engaging in a variety of behaviors (for male and female teachers separately), and in one study, teachers were asked to estimate the probable reaction of the community to teachers who engaged in such behaviors. ... The most universally disapproved forms of teacher behavior among the reporting groups were drinking alcoholic liquor and dating students. Running for political office and making political speeches tended to be disapproved. Of perhaps greater interest are the forms of behavior which were approved or on which there were no clear normative expectations: dating a town person or another teacher, leaving the area over the weekend, buying clothes outside the area, joining a teachers' union, smoking in private, dancing, and even teaching controversial issues (mildly diapproved by board members). ... Expectations on the female teachers in a few areas were more restrictive than on the male teacher, particularly with respect to smoking and playing pool and billiards ... (Cooke & Greenhoe, 1940, p. 768)

Contrast that circumstance with socio-demographic data Martin Haberman shared in a recent article:

> In 1982, almost one of every six students enrolled in the public schools was from a poor family and almost one of every ten were handicapped. More than one of every four students enrolled was a member of a minority. All these data were up from the previous decade.
>
> If present trends continue—and there is every reason to believe they will accelerate—the public schools in 2000 will have substantial numbers of minority, low-income, and handicapped students. An increasing number of cities (and states) will have schools where the majority of students will be characterized by one or more of these attributes (that is, minority, poverty, handicapped).
>
> In some states, where the minority population will constitute the majority of students, Spanish speakers will dominate (for example, Texas and New Mexico). In other states, the new majority will be composed of primarily of Spanish speakers and Blacks but will also include several minorities, such as Asiatics and Haitans (for example, California, New York, and Florida).

> In almost every major city of over 500,000 population, the majority of students will be those now defined as minority, poverty, handicapped. The shift in the general population from the older industrial areas to the Sunbelt will not mitigate this trend. Although the Sunbelt has almost all the fastest-growing urban areas, it is also characterized by large and rapidly increasing minority populations and increasing number of poor people. (Haberman, 1984, pp. 498–499)

This increase in ethnic diversity and the likely concomitant exacerbation of differences in resources and opportunity between the "haves" and the "have nots" in this country is but a reflection of even more dramatic demographic trends internationally. At the recent United Nations International Conference on Population in Mexico City, the following population data was shared. New York City, currently the second largest city in the world and but one of only five cities of 15 million and over, is projected as the sixth largest city by the year 2000. Beyond that the United Nations' demographers project 20 cities will have 11 million or more people by the turn of the century. The United States, Canada, Western Europe, and Australia will be represented by only two cities of this size, New York and Los Angeles. Both of these cities, in light of current migration patterns, will likely reflect even more cultural diversity than at present, with a very large Spanish-speaking population.

Again contrast this social context with recent socio-demographic data about teachers. The National Center for Educational Statistics (1983) reported that 91 percent of recent bachelors degree recipients and those newly qualified to teach were white, non-hispanic; 6% were black, and 1.7% were hispanic.

Based on a large scale study of teacher preparation in the late 1970s, Yarger, Joyce, and Howey, (1977), developed the following profile of a "typical" teacher candidate:

> A discussion with this average teacher candidate about her background creates several impressions. One is of provincialism. She still tends to come from a small city or from a rural area. She and her colleagues are clearly monolingual, with only three percent stating that they could use either Spanish or French as a medium for instruction (fewer than one percent specified any other language). Five out of six of the students attended College in their home state, with an amazing two-thirds attending college within 100 miles of their home. She and most of her colleagues selected their teacher training institution because of the programs that were available, the cost factor, convenience to home, and what was perceived as adequate job prospects upon graduation. (p. 34)

There are, of course, major differences among individual teacher candidates in terms of background, and one must be very cautious in terms of attributions attached to social or economic status. Also, recent studies at specific institutions and in different regions of the country suggest that student profiles vary from region to region and institution to institution.

Regardless, the largely white, monolingual, and parochial background of these beginning teachers appears generalizable. For example, when we asked teacher education students in the preservice study noted above about preferences in terms of the context in which they would like to teach, only 1 in 3 suggested they would prefer a multi-cultural setting. The majority desired to teach in either a suburban or small town setting, with only 12 percent expressing a preference for an urban setting. Given their background, this should not be surprising.

The impact of these changing demographic patterns should be increasingly profound in terms of the attitudes, behavior, and fundamental life style of many. While I cannot predict the multiple implications of these patterns, the challenge to public schools will be very considerable. It is difficult not to project considerable turmoil on the horizon, especially given the present and foreseeable teaching force. I suggest that conditions in our urban areas will indelibly underline three major propositions:

1. A strong system of free public schools is essential to this country.
2. Highly competent teachers are the absolute cornerstone to the success of those schools.
3. Greater investment of resources is needed in the preparation of teachers and in the knowledge base to guide that preparation.

Two major competing forces shape present and future directions in teacher preparation. On the one hand, advocates such as those in the Holmes Study Group have accrued considerable attention in making the case for more protracted and substantive teacher preparation to occur at the post-baccalaureate level. The push by some large urban districts to prepare teachers, through the use of an abbreviated apprenticeship model, is being equally and vigorously initiated by others. The viewpoint here is that over time the former position will prevail. I suggest that in light of what will be growing challenges to schools and teachers, schemes that will evolve to attract "more qualified" teachers for the realities of the classroom that are founded largely on expedience will only further contribute to the challenges that lie ahead. It will become increasingly clear that teachers are needed who not only know their subject matter but who are, in fact, skilled in the science and art of teaching and in how to interact with large numbers of diverse young people. Most assuredly our primary course must be toward more substantive and protracted training. From this perspective, stronger links between general studies, professional knowledge, and pedagogical development are needed to meet the challenges ahead.

Those who suggest the problems of K-12 schools will be solved largely by providing more arduous subject matter and rigorous standards underestimate the profound impact of the larger social context and the similar microcosm that exists in the classroom. In this vein William Gardner (1984) provided one of the most cogent analyses of the report issued by the National Commission on Excellence In Education. He notes how the Commission was charged with assessing the extent to which "major social as well as educational change in the last quarter century has affected student achievement" (p. 13), yet it largely ignored the profound impact of the era of access and opportunity that occurred over the last two decades (likewise, the Commission appeared largely oblivious to the trends noted earlier). He shares Torsten Husen's studied observation that on both sides of the Atlantic a new educational underclass has evolved and that this is the most serious problem facing schools today. This is to say that less formally educated parents tend to be suspicious of the schools as an institution, and very early in their school careers youngsters from these homes give up competing for success. The dropout rate in many urban settings by students in this "underclass" is tragic testimony to this observation.

Gardner cautions against proposing simple solutions to complex problems (i.e., focusing largely on the imposition of harder study and harder subjects), and he asks for further reflection:

> Can it be that after decades of encouraging all young people to attend high school that we are left with a pattern of alienation? Do adolescents (and parents) from the underclass perceive the educational race to be decided before it starts along socio-economic lines? Clearly, the problem noted by Husen is potentially of the first magnitude; its solution would involve far more than a reconsideration of educational standards. (p. 14)

In a similar criticism of the recent proposals for reform of education, the venerable Harold Howe (1984) shared these observations:

> Dropouts: I list this as the first priority. It is absolutely astounding to me that so many intelligent people could look for so long at American schools and say so little about this problem. John I. Goodlad says in *A Place Called School:* The quality of an educational institution must be judged on its holding power, not just an assessment of its graduates. I say amen to that.
>
> The fact is, of course, that the national groups issuing reports on the schools weren't terribly interested in this subject or even in the 5.5-percent increase in the school dropout rate from 1972 to 1982. Their recommendations for more homework, more demanding courses, longer school days, and more tests are likely to be implemented in ways that will further increase the number of dropouts, although some schools may be skillful enough to avoid this hazard. (p. 1)

Again, the assumption by many school reformers appears to be that a new orthodoxy can be created in the name of rigor and quality. Gardner, Howe, and others obviously are not opposing high standards. Their argument, as mine, is that unless changes in curricular standards are accompanied by fundamental changes in the climate that exists in many schools, in the way teachers and students are organized, in how the very craft of teaching is pursued, and in how students can be involved in more authentic ways in learning, that these efforts to mandate rigor will accomplish little. It is here that the growing knowledge base that I addressed briefly at the outset takes on such critical importance. This evolving science of pedagogy addresses the fundamental concerns noted above and thus should constitute in an integrative sense a greater portion of initial preparation than it does at present. The classroom teacher's knowledge of subject matter must, many times each day, be filtered through a repertoire of skillful instructional strategies. Certainly, teachers' knowledge of the subject matter in which they instruct is essential, but without insights into the ecology of the classroom and how it can be structured and managed, the nature of learner and learning, a command of varying teaching methodologies, and a knowledge of when to employ these, the result too often is sterile instruction falling on deaf ears.

In summary, I suggest that visible demographic trends, resultant conditions in schools, and evolving coalitions by those within education to respond to these conditions have the power to generate major changes in initial teacher preparation. While any number of teacher training schemes will evolve to recruit and prepare teachers for school settings in the short term, over the longer term there will be major efforts to alter and expand initial teacher preparation. Primary catalysts for such efforts will be a renewed recognition of the essentiality of public schooling, the magnitude of the problems confronting those schools, and the crucial need for competent teachers. Stronger coalitions than currently exist among academics, teacher educators, and those within schools, primarily teachers through the teacher unions, will evolve. I will return to this point later.

## LIMITED INTEGRATION WITH THE ARTS AND SCIENCES

What are some of the relationships between a changing social demography and the five constraints in present teacher preparation identified earlier? The first of these constraints was the weak link or lack of integration between the arts and sciences curriculum and professional education. The need for understandings that contribute to living harmoniously and teaching effectively in our rapidly changing society will soon surface again as a priority. Lessons learned from ways many attempted to enhance our social consciousness in the 1960s are instructive here. There were many "quick-fix" responses in our higher education curricula at that time. Siegel and Delattre (1981) speak to the ironic results of such well-intended efforts:

> The jargon of studies intended to promote social reform—'appreciation of culture and world values,' 'exploring human nature,' 'ethnic heritage pro-

> grams, "global perspectives"—conceals a shallowness in the resulting curricula. It is not likely that students will come to any real understanding of human nature without studying literature and history. It's not likely that "global perspectives" will be informed if they are taught without geography and foreign languages. "Relevant" contemporary issues can't be grasped in any depth without some background in the natural sciences, mathematics, and economics. Popular, contemporary treatment of social issues leads, at most, to shallow understanding of those issues. What is worse, it teaches that history, literature, mathematics, science and languages are not really very important in dealing with contemporary issues. Such studies promote nothing but uninformed and undisciplined conviction, which, even if right, has no roots in knowledge or reflection. (p. 17)

Perhaps in time the move to an expanded teacher preparation curricula will largely remove it from direct links with undergraduate studies. For the time being, however, a viable option in many institutions is to pursue more aggressively integrative, all-institutional study of teacher preparation. How might the foundational study identified as essential by Siegel and Delattre be better integrated with professional studies? Kneller (1984) addresses the study of education as a substantive discipline tied more directly to traditional disciplines when he states:

> It is a sad commentary on our profession, and on our subject matter, that we have been unable to include in the undergraduate curriculum the study of education as a substantive discipline and therefore have failed to interest the rank and file of students in a subject that is as important to them as any they take. Too many educationists have agreed with other faculty that, unlike standard subjects, education cannot profitably be studied by undergraduates generally. Too many members of our profession seem to have agreed with other faculty in the mistaken notion that education and pedagogy are synonymous. It is almost like saying that physiology and medicine or economics and management are one and the same. (p. 14)

He goes on to illustrate the possibility of integrating the study of education with a number of disciplines beyond philosophy and psychology; in this instance, he selects literature as a prime example:

> Under any consideration I still would make room for courses in literature and education. The neglect of literature by educationists is incomprehensible. Like the historian, the philosopher, and others in humane studied, the creative writer gives us knowledge of how to live. The writer embodies knowledge of human beings and education in a tale that moves our imagination and emotions as well as our intellect. Writers make us see and feel what it is like to educate and be educated in different times and places. Charles Dickens, for example, portrays 20-odd schools and refers to several more. He also depicts a dozen types of coercion in child training. In *Women in Love*, D. H. Lawrence, a former elementary school teacher, gives us a riveting portrayal of a lesson seen by a school inspector. Especially since World War II education has become the central theme and setting of many novels. For portraits of teaching, learning, classroom interactions, and the joys and miseries of childhood and adolescence, we can do no better than study such works as

> Muriel Spark's *The Prime of Miss Jean Brodie*, John Horne Brown's *Lucifer with a Match*, Frances Patton's *Good Morning, Miss Dove*, Herman Wouk's *Marjorie Morningstar*, and many others I could name. (p. 19)

I believe I am cognizant of the difficulties involved in bridging faculty efforts across disciplines. Nonetheless this is a problem that has been confronted with considerable success in other professions. One would think that more protracted and substantive programs of teacher preparation could be achieved in ways other than proposed in many of the recommendations that would appear to divorce the study of education even more from the arts and sciences.

## THE LIMITED INVOLVEMENT OF EXEMPLARY TEACHERS

A second major constraint identified at the outset was the lack of first-hand involvement by the best of our teachers in substantial ways throughout our programs of teacher preparation. How might a more effective partnership between those in schools and colleges of education and those in K-12 schools be achieved? The key rests with how efforts to enhance the status of teachers proceed. A number of factors is likely to contribute to relatively higher teacher status in the immediate future, including rather dramatic changes in many situations relative to teacher supply and demand, heightened public concern about quality, and deviations from current collective bargaining arrangements that are designed to strengthen the salaries of beginning teachers. One example of this would be bargaining for identical raises for all teachers regardless of training or experience during a given contract period in order to build a higher base for the beginner.

Salary increases in the future will be eroded if they are not seen as contributing to desired achievement by students. Demonstrating such a link is very unlikely, especially if I am correct in my projection of more difficult times ahead.

In the long run one simply cannot expect major advances in teacher salaries without a concomitant move toward initial preparation that is more commensurate with that of other professionals. It should be clear to the leaders in the teacher unions that the key to significant advancement in the status of teachers and what that reflects in terms of salary, autonomy and working conditions is rooted in the nature and extent of teachers' initial preparation. Growing acknowledgement of this should spur the teacher organizations to work more closely with colleagues in higher education toward the advancement of teacher education.

A revisited but timely concept through which teachers can contribute in more substantial ways to initial teacher preparation and at the same time enhance their own credibility is that of career lattices. Notwithstanding an increasing emphasis on teacher accountability, the concept of merit pay is immersed in such a political morass and confronted with such diverse practical realities that it is not likely to gain any widespread endorsement in the immediate future. On the other hand, the concept of differentiated staffing based upon hierarchical roles with clearly specified differences in the scope and nature of responsibilities is a more politically palatable and economically feasible concept. This is especially the situation because quotas will be placed on the number of teachers who are able to assume leadership roles at the top of the hierarchy. A leadership role for teachers that would have the support of most stakeholders in education is one that places teachers in a teacher educator function and especially one in which they can give beginning teachers first-hand assistance.

The development of various types of clinical professor roles assumed by teachers would communicate to the general public a more professional posture by the unions than the present one that is often viewed as self-serving. More important and germane, outstanding teachers could make a very real contribution to addressing one of the most basic problems in programs of initial teacher preparation, a weak clinical component. Better coalitions between those in teacher education and the teacher organizations should be able to garner support for such leadership roles and benefit both groups.

## THE LIMITED INTEGRATION OF HIGH QUALITY CLINICAL EXPERIENCES

The third major constraining factor identified at the outset was that of the limited clinical integration throughout programs of teacher preparation. In some respects, considerable momentum for addressing this problem has been achieved already. Perhaps the most common alteration in programs of teacher education across the country in recent years has been the increased number of hours preservice teachers spend in schools at various stages throughout their preparation program. Prospective teachers often have at least 200 hours of involvement at school sites prior to student teaching. In an effort to improve initial teacher preparation, some states have mandated the number of hours that preservice students must spend in clinical activities.

While the number and frequency of experiences in schools has increased, concerns about the quality of these activities in many instances nonetheless appears justified. For example, the casual observer of teacher education policies and practices would assume a considerable degree of collaboration between teacher preparation programs and cooperating schools. One could expect, given the major responsibility of "cooperating" teachers, that they would be selected with considerable care, provided specialized training, and be substantially reimbursed for their efforts. This is simply not the case. After examining data about student teaching policies and practices from across the country in the late 1970s, my colleagues and I (Yarger and Joyce) wrote (1978):

> Fewer than one-fifth of the department chairs reported level of experience as a teacher, advanced training or previous supervisory experience as the most important factors in the selection of cooperating teachers. Instead, the general reputation of the teacher and a willingness to work with student teachers appear to be the chief criteria for selection.
>
> It may well be that the role lacks appeal for many teachers. A sense of professional responsibility on the one hand and the reciprocal assistance provided by the novitiate in the classroom on the other appear to be the basic incentives for assuming such a role. Certainly, the modest honorarium provided in half the institutions to cooperating teachers has limited drawing power, to put it mildly. The average program offers $30.00 but many provide none. (This figure has risen but only modestly in recent years.) Various inkind considerations and faculty assistance to teachers of one type or another are provided to some degree. No one practice is common, however, and there are considerable differences in terms of what is provided to teachers. . . . While the student teaching experience does appear to be the hub for some college-school collaboration, it would appear to contribute little to advancing school practices in the vast majority of cases. . . . (p. 35)

Even less monetary support is available for faculty to work with students at school sites in pre-student teaching or early field experiences. It is extremely rare, for example, when funds are available to reimburse teachers for their participation in these activities. Selection again appears to hinge primarily on the availability and willingness of those practicing teachers to work with students in these shorter term experiences.

Thus, one can infer from the lack of attention given to these experiences that in many instances their educational value might indeed be problematic. Indeed, there have been several studies that raise questions about the value of many of these field-based experiences. A typical characterization of these early experiences has preservice teachers assuming a limited apprenticeship role and engaging in largely pedestrian tasks (Hoy & Rees, 1977). Zeichner (1978) suggests that student teaching itself appears to embrace a rather complicated and subtle set of both positive and negative consequences. After reviewing the literature on student teaching, he concluded:

> Consequently, the literature does not support the contention that practical experiences in schools are necessarily beneficial, nor can it be taken for granted that more time spent in schools will automatically make better teachers. There are definitely many decrements reported by student teachers in attitudinal variables by the end of their experience (e.g., self-concept). Probably the most clear and consistent finding from the research is that the cooperating teacher has a tremendous impact on the attitudes and behaviors

> of student teachers, an effect which in some cases is not desirable. On the other hand, the university supervisor seems to have little or no effect. (p. 59)

Exhortations for preservice teachers to assume a more scientific, clinical, and inquiring posture in these experiences are long-standing. Yet there is little evidence in studies of preservice teachers' experiences in schools that they engage in such behavior. Also, little systematic attention is given to the moral and ethical dimensions of teaching in these experiences. John Mergendoller (1984) speaks to the comprehensive nature of the moral basis of teaching:

> I conceive of the classroom as having a moral order which permeates nearly every aspect of student life and activity. The status differential between teachers and students is one aspect of this moral order, but there are many more: establishment of behavioral norms and academic expectations, reward and punishment strategies, distribution of teacher help and attention, and group decisions. I think the overarching concept of a moral order is broad enough to encompass most of what we do as teachers, but I think the definition of moral needs to be spelled out quite carefully. It is a word which invites misinterpretation. (p. 95)

Certainly many of the experiences that preservice students have in schools lie more in the direction of largely unchallenged pedestrian activities than in well-conceived activities where prospective teachers have opportunities to inquire, to experiment, and to reflect on the subtleties and complexities of the classroom including the moral as well as technical dimensions of teaching. It is at these critical junctures between the acquisition of knowledge and the testing of it in classrooms that there is considerable room for improvement; it is here that the teacher organizations can make a most significant contribution. While college-based teacher educators assume considerable responsibility for the type of activity and level of performance expected by preservice teachers in a variety of clinical settings, research confirms the extensive influence of experienced teachers. The school settings themselves also influence both experienced and beginning teachers to a considerable degree.

Dialogue is needed relative to how the quality of these experiences can be maximized through stronger partnerships between those in the colleges and those in the classrooms. I am cautiously optimistic that teacher preparation programs will witness a growing first-hand involvement by teachers in prestudent teaching, student teaching and continuing intern-types of experiences in the schools. Again, the basic tactic will be for institutions of higher education to join hands with teacher organizations to lobby for monies to support the training and selection of master teachers who will have as a primary function the mentoring of beginning teacher education students throughout all phases of their program. There will be several variations on this theme with some programs emphasizing well-delineated sequenced early experiences and other programs extending forms of student teaching through internships or induction schemes.

## THE LACK OF PROGRAMMATIC COHERENCE AND FACULTY/STUDENT COLLEAGIALITY

I argue that a number of recent studies into what differentiates more successful schools from less successful ones have relevance in several ways for preservice teacher education. Purkey and Smith (1983) provide an excellent review of the literature concerned with what is commonly termed "school effectiveness." The importance of these studies is especially significant in that they challenge the assumption supported by certain prior major studies of schools (Coleman, et al., 1966; Jencks, et al., 1972) that differences among schools have little influence on student academic achievement. These more recent research studies, while tentative in many respects, nonetheless support both common sense and theory relative to how schools make a difference.

Purkey and Smith conclude that academically effective schools are distinguished by their culture, by how they are structured, by their social psychological climate, and by a collective set of values and norms that emphasize successful teaching and learning. These school-level factors set the stage for what goes on in individual classrooms. Key organizational and structural variables that they derived from the literature as contributing to desired outcomes include: a) school site management, b) instructional leadership, c) staff stability, d) curriculum articulation and organization (articulation speaks to how curriculum is related across grade levels or subject areas), e) school-wide staff development, f) parental involvement and support, g) school-wide recognition of academic success, h) maximized time for learning, and i) level of district support.

Findings from these studies of schools are increasingly finding their way into the curriculum in teacher preparation programs. These research findings should affect teacher preparation in ways other than as content for study however. For example, some states have already legislated support for schools that are willing to invest their faculty resources in moving more fully towards profiles of effective schools as described in this literature. As this practice expands, there should increasingly be linkages between these schools and programs of teacher education. Throughout the history of teacher education, colleges and universities have developed continuing working relationships with laboratory or demonstration schools. For a variety of reasons in recent history, there has been a decline in such arrangements. With enlightened legislative support, however, these collaborative arrangements will expand once again, and the likely focus for such arrangements will be on schools that have demonstrated policies, practices, and conditions consonant with the growing school effectiveness literature. While most schools will be influenced to move to those ideals espoused for effective schools, past history suggests that the development of prototypes or lighthouse schools that bring together a critical mass of resources across role groups and institutions is a more predictable course of action. These partnerships typically will revolve around a reciprocal arrangement whereby continuing contributions by college faculty to the school improvement process are provided in return for more exemplary training sites where a number of preservice students can engage in a variety of clinical practices.

Close working relationships between those in the schools and those in higher education relative to a variety of educational innovations are hardly new. Such efforts were central to many teacher education programs funded at the federal level throughout the 1960s and 1970s. This form of collaboration raises yet another distinct possibility in terms of how the emphasis on all-school characteristics might impact teacher education programs. I believe the school-effectiveness movement could help promote support for targeted research and development for model programs of teacher education.

## RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT AND PROGRAMMATIC COHERENCE

How might research and development in schools affect similar research and development in teacher preparation? Purkey and Smith (1983) identify four factors that appear to be the sustaining characteristics of a productive school culture: collaborative planning and colleagial relationships, a sense of community, clear goals and high expectations commonly shared, and a sense of order and discipline. Certainly these characteristics imply a closer working relationship among teachers than currently is witnessed in the vast majority of schools across this country. The success of groups that work closely together on tasks over time in whatever work setting depend upon two key factors. The first is that those persons involved bring different abilities to the task that complement one another; the second is that they can achieve consensus on important decisions. Sustained collaborative planning is most difficult when it is conducted largely by persons who work independently of one another and who bring largely the same strengths and similar perspectives to the problem or task.

Yet, the most common practice across this country is for elementary teachers to teach basically in what has been called a self-contained classroom. This is to say, teachers are largely responsible for teaching all of the subjects to the same group of children over the course of at least one year. Rarely in these critical years of schooling do teachers acquire an in-depth specialization in any given discipline nor are they recruited or assigned to teach in that manner. Beyond that, little consideration has been given to the possibility of incorporating a mix of teachers in elementary schools who would have their responsibilities differentiated along lines other than subject matter expertise (e.g., a specialization in social development or assuming a distinct role that would better bridge learning experiences in the school and home). Yet another possibility would be roles that would allow primary attention to the emotional needs of the young, especially to the many students who come to school from an environment largely barren of adult love and support.

I am not projecting any imminent or radical reorganization of schools. Nonetheless, I believe that what the school effectiveness literature implies about school organization and the magnitude of the task that confronts many teachers will over time move teachers towards more differentiated, complementary, and collaborative relationships, especially in elementary schools. While the emphasis at present is on our secondary schools and their standards and curricula, it is clear that attention needs to be given to how we can improve early schooling or many youngsters will leave school before they benefit from whatever reform occurs at the secondary level. Rethinking the roles and responsibilities of elementary teachers is one means of intervening in a major way. Such a transition over time would have obvious implications for the way in which teachers are prepared.

Just as selected K-12 school sites will continue to be eligible for additional funding because of a commitment to various forms of school improvement, similarly planned variations in programs of teacher education that can be systematically studied will garner more support for research, development, and evaluation than at present. This research and development needs to address not only the various ways in which teachers are most effectively prepared but also should deal with the question of just which types of teachers and teacher roles are needed at different levels of schooling. Many have argued that teacher preparation is occupied attempting to prepare teachers for today's school and cannot lead in changing schools. I strongly disagree. What is needed are better alliances within the education profession to address cooperatively the highly interactive and interdependent questions of a) how can schools best accomplish a broad range of functions and b) what types of teachers and what types of training are needed to achieve those goals. More support is needed for research and development undertaken cooperatively between colleagues and K-12 schools, and across colleges working in complementary fashion. Such support is likely to be achieved if lobbied for in stronger alliances across role groups. I suggest the following program priorities for research and development in teacher education:

1. Programs that reflect both new and strengthened roles and relationships with those in K-12 schools—whether in earlier and continuing experiences that permeate the entire curriculum or whether in internship or induction experiences that extend beyond the typical four year program.
2. Programs founded on explicitly different orientations of teaching such as an emphasis on the "teacher as scholar." This specific example should be especially appealing for just as the status of teachers is likely to be enhanced through more robust initial teacher preparation programs, so also the image of teachers as more authentic partners in the development of a knowledge base will greatly enhance their status in the long run.
3. Programs that develop variations in the way initial programs of teacher preparation can be extended. AACTE has concisely illustrated a number of options in their monograph *Educating A Profession: Extended Programs for Teacher Education.* For example, both of the Four-Plus-One models are candidates for more systematic research and development. An emphasis should be on the efficacy of the expanding knowledge base as implemented differentially in these expanded structural alterations. Planned variation *across* institutions is needed.
4. Programs that concentrate on major alterations in the role of teaching that is, moving from an emphasis on an all-purpose elementary teacher to roles that would be more specialized and interdependent.

To summarize, then, the school effectiveness literature has implications not only for inclusion as content for study in the curriculum and for defining the types of school sites with which programs of teacher education should align themselves, but, even more fundamentally, for suggesting basic alterations in programs of teacher education, many of which could be model research and development sites. In this latter vein, this literature suggests that more attention to collaborative forms of teaching is needed and that those critical process variables that appear to define the general concept of school culture and climate should be studied in terms of how programs of teacher education might be organized, as well.

## ADAPTATION OF RECENT RESEARCH FINDINGS

A related research literature that can contribute in substantive ways to teacher preparation examines the ecology of the classroom from a variety of perspectives. In this regard, the review of the intrinsic character of academic work in elementary and secondary schools by Walter

Doyle (1983) is especially noteworthy. His comprehensive and insightful review and analysis has specific applications for a fuller understanding of academic tasks experienced by both students and teachers and for identifying realistic ways in which the quality of those efforts can be enhanced. Doyle's work also provides excellent insights into how students manage the considerable ambiguity and risk that is associated with different classroom tasks.

The review of ecological studies by Hamilton (1983) is also to be commended, as is the work of several scholars with related lines of inquiry who have studied the ecology of the classroom (see Mitman, Mergendoller, Mien, Ward, and Tikunoff, 1981).

The importance of this emphasis on the ecology of the classroom is that it provides a more fine grained and complete understanding of the dimensions of the classroom as a complex social system than has been available in the past. Many of these understandings can be acquired by preservice studies prior to actual instruction in a classroom. Familiarity with the core disciplines and the perspectives of the numerous scholars who have studied classrooms, whether linguistic, social-psychological, or anthropological in nature also provide conceptual lenses through which beginning students of education can critically study and reflect on the nature of teaching and learning. The use of this classroom ecology literature to guide the type of inquiry and reflection advocated for teachers by so many is obvious.

## COGNITIVE PSYCHOLOGY

A third area of research findings that are especially relevant to teacher preparation falls within the general domain of cognitive psychology. Winne and Marx (1981) suggest that cognitive psychology is central to three generic aspects of teaching: instructional design knowledge, instructional delivery skills or general teaching methodology, and teacher competence in decision making.

They suggest that what ties these three critical teacher competencies together are the cognitive strategies employed by learners as they respond to instruction. They suggest that various technologies for instructional design based on cognitive theories of learning provide a far more generalizable base of knowledge for teachers than the behaviorally based systems that are typically employed. They review the emerging research on how students cognitively mediate instructional events in the classroom as well as that concerned with teacher decision making. Shavelson (1983) and Clark (1983) also review this latter literature. According to Shavelson, a teacher's behavior tends to be guided by simplified models of the complex reality of the classroom. Teachers rely on various sources to construct these realities, including their own values and the organizational constraints of the school district and schools in which they work. However, one potentially important source of information that appears to be largely ignored in teachers' decisions about classroom activity is the type of cognitive processing in which they ask students to engage. Again, this research literature should be of assistance to preservice teachers in analyzing various instructional activities in terms of the kinds of cognitive abilities they require of students. Given the considerable limitations that Griffin (1983) has found in the planning and decision-making skills of preservice teachers, research findings that link cognitive development to teacher decision-making skills would appear to be especially helpful in designing teacher preparation activities.

There have also been numerous studies that examine various forms of cognitive or learning style, styles that can be dispositional and sustaining in character. Certain of these focus on cultural differences. Given the dramatic changes in demography noted earlier, this latter body of information should become increasingly important in programs of teacher preparation. Research here seems especially suitable for inclusion in micro-teaching settings where the preservice teacher can more systematically analyze the effects of different instructional decisions or strategies on different types of learners or learning styles.

## CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

There is also a growing research literature on classroom management and organization. Recent major reviews of the literature include those by Brophy (1983), Weber (1983), and Walberg and Waxman (1983). This literature can provide preservice students with a number of different perspectives for how classrooms can be managed and organized. The beginning teacher has access to an applied science base where only a short time ago such questionable advice as "run a tight ship" guided management and discipline decisions. This literature provides clear and detailed descriptions of how highly successful teachers manage classrooms and respond to a variety of student behaviors.

One family of interactional and organizational strategies has its roots in social psychology. Johnson and Johnson (1981) have conducted studies in a number of classrooms across the country where teachers purposely intervene to alter classrooms to create a competitive, an individualistic or a cooperative goal structure in the classroom. They demonstrate the efficacy of each of these different classroom goal structures in terms of achieving instructional objectives. In an extensive review of the literature, they report significant positive correlations between classrooms that stress cooperative goal structures and a number of desired student outcomes including various types of cognitive achievement and affective growth.

In summary, this growing literature on classroom management and organization can provide the beginning teacher with a number of alternative strategies for managing a classroom and with a variety of conceptual lenses for examining behavior and the potential causes of that behavior.

## EFFECTIVE TEACHING

The most comprehensive studies for teacher education are those that look at patterns of effective teaching. There is a teacher effectiveness literature just as there is a school effectiveness data base. Numerous scholars who have provided excellent reviews and critiques of studies in this area include Rosenshine (1983), Gage (1980), Good and Brophy (1984), and Soar (1983). Patterns of teaching behavior are articulated that have been shown to obtain greater-than-expected achievement from students of various types and in various contexts. These findings have been derived from both naturalistic and experimental research. Specific constructs such as active and direct teaching have evolved. While behavioral prescriptions do not exist, principles to guide instruction for certain goals appear clear.

There are two related areas of research that should also be mentioned. The first has to do with teacher expectations. The thorough review by Good (1983) of the impact of teacher expectations on student achievement has multiple implications for teacher education curricula. This literature clearly points out that teacher expectations are often communicated differentially to students, and in a multiplicity of ways. For example while a teacher may verbalize one type of expectation to a student, his or her behavior may well communicate a different message. Likewise the amount of time a teacher waits for an answer from a student, the type of criticism provided to a student, the way rewards are distributed in a classroom, and the frequency and type of interaction a teacher has with different students all communicate expectations. The fact that expectations have a profound influence on both students' attitudes and achievement underscores the significance of this literature. The incorporation of this knowledge into the teacher education curriculum should provide beginning teachers with better understandings of and more sensitivity to the multiple messages that they communicate in the classroom.

Finally, the pioneer work of Joyce and Weil (1980) relative to the development of a variety of models of general teaching should also be noted when discussing teaching effectiveness. Numerous studies have supported a correlation between effectiveness in the classroom and the adaptability of the teacher. Teacher adaptability in many respects is related to the range and repertoire of teaching skills that a teacher possesses. Joyce provides a foundation for examining how social and personal as well as cognitive goals may be promoted in the classroom through the use of a variety of general teaching methodologies. Certainly Joyce's work speaks directly to the concerns raised in recent studies about the limited range of instructional strategies and teaching tactics employed in many high school classrooms across the country.

While this review was limited to studies related to teaching effectiveness, there are other major factors that will influence the teacher preparation curricula in the next generation. Not the least of these are the rapid advancements in technology. One can only speculate on the variety of ways a melding of the two great delivery systems of television and computers will affect teacher preparation.

## SUMMARY

The growing knowledge base has potential to improve teacher preparation and eventually enhance teacher effectiveness. However, it is not likely, in itself, to be enough of a catalyst to alter teacher preparation in significant fashion in the short run. This is not meant to demean the work of many outstanding scholars or the efficacy of this research, but rather to suggest that past history has demonstrated the difficulty of substantially altering programs of teacher education.

I have identified a number of salient factors external as well as internal to education that may have the power in the future to restructure these programs in more substantial ways and allow for full consideration of how the various domains of knowledge reviewed above might best be incorporated into teacher preparation. The emphasis in this paper has been on an analysis of which factors might be further abetted so that the knowledge-to-practice transition becomes more than the occasional development of a new course or two or the incorporation of additional content into existing courses.

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## X

# Guiding Images for Teaching and Teacher Education

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Those of us responsible for educating teachers find ourselves surrounded by advice. We are told to: raise admission standards; press for scholarships; join the profession in demanding better conditions of professional practice; use tests (a) for entry, (b) within the teacher preparation programs, and (c) at the end; improve the relevance and quality of the professional portion of the training program; increase the amount of academic time spent on learning subject matter content; and stand aside while alternate routes to certification are developed, some of which, like New Jersey's, seem to be attempts to bypass virtually any kind of responsible professional preparation whatsoever. To disagree with any of the prescriptions is surely to risk being labeled defensive or obstructive. Furthermore, to try and take leadership positions within teacher education, given its diversity, is equally certain to incur the objections of representatives of institutions whose general character is different from the norm.

We live in interesting times, indeed!

I want, therefore, to take a somewhat different tack and to deliberately ignore the complexity of the issues. Taking a page from Kenneth Boulding, I am going to ask that the reader consider several guiding images for teaching. A guiding image, of course, is not a de facto picture, that is, one that accurately characterizes present circumstance. It is one that has normative status, one that ought to guide our conceptualization of teaching at its best and at the farthest limits of current possibility.

The key words in that last sentence are "best" and "farthest limits." We cannot be allowed to avoid the exercise of judgment as to worth.

Neither should we allow ourselves to go beyond the limits of the possible; pie-in-the-sky will get us no further than it has gotten anyone else. The purpose of the guiding image exercise is to test the implications of those images for shaping the selection, preparation, and conditions of practice for teachers.

In sum, I am trying to encourage us to think at high levels of generality, responsibly, and with attention to implications. Unless educators do this, we reduce ourselves to a hopeless muddle of competing views, unarticulated and unexamined as to implications, and, borrowing a phrase, to a process of implementing solutions still in search of suitable problems (Cohen, March, and Olsen, 1972). My underlying premise is that no solutions to the puzzles of teacher education will be *found*; they must be *designed*.

## FOUR IMAGES OF WHAT TEACHING MIGHT BE

There are in the literature, no doubt, dozens of thinkpieces casting images of what teaching might be. I want to focus on four that capture the major competing themes we see about us.

### Teacher as Artist

There is a substantial literature, flowing from both the academic and the practitioner communities, offering conceptions of teaching as an art. Those who profess this particular view tend to focus on the "performances" teachers give, the importance of creativity in highly successful teaching, and the necessity for the sensitivity and devotion that the public associates with other kinds of artists.

There are some points of divergence among proponents of this view. Some would focus more on the aesthetic dimensions of teachers as artists; others would place their emphasis on the performance requirements; still a third group would focus on the concept of practical arts, attending more to the unpredictability of the teaching situation and the need for minute, highly situational adjustments that are nonetheless valid and effective.

What are the implications of accepting teaching as an art form? In speaking to entry criteria for teacher preparation, those who hold this view seek to specify the talents required for the art. They would assess aptitudes for the art. They would hold auditions in the course of which teacher educators would seek to observe the presence of teaching instincts.

Teacher preparation would be conceived as apprenticeship, would be guided by practitioners and master performers, would take place in real settings with real students, and would probably exude a competitive atmosphere.

The conditions of practice suggested by this image of teaching would be compensation relative to performance, peer judgments of worth, a star system supported by a *corps de educare*, and teaching (as contrasted to learning) oriented (Dawe, 1984).

## Teacher as Moral Craftsman

Alan Tom, in a conceptually provocative book, contends that teachers ought to be viewed as moral craftsmen. Tom defines moral craft as "a reflective, diligent, and skillful approach toward the pursuit of desirable ends" (Tom, 1984, p. 128). He would ask us to focus on the intentional character of the teacher's role and the responsibility always to pursue desirable goals.

Tom uses the word "moral" to refer to more general questions of valuation. He asks: "What really matters during one's life? During one's career? During the next day or two? To what end does one pursue a particular activity?" (p. 78). For Tom, teaching is moral in two distinct ways: first, because of the dominant power position of teachers relative to students; and, second, because a curriculum plan selects certain objectives or pieces of content instead of others.

The implications of this image for selecting, training, and supporting teachers are different from those of the performing artist image. Presumably we would want to select students who indicated either the propensity or capacity for making moral decisions, who had the talent for the craft aspects, and who, taking my cue from Thomas Green, exhibited the craft, membership, sacrifice, and imagination "voices" necessary to the expression of conscience in a technological society (Green, 1984).

Teacher preparation in the moral craft image would encompass broad, rigorous intellectual training suited to the refinement of moral skills and capacities coupled with apprenticeship models to develop the craft skills. The conditions of practice best suited to this image include high degrees of individual professional autonomy and opportunity for the sharing of perceptions among teachers to assure balanced perspectives on the value decisions being made. The orientation is likely to encompass a blending of teaching and learning, rather than a predominant focus of one over the other.

## Teacher as Applied Scientist

At its heart, the image of teacher as applied scientist is based on the belief that certain regularities can, in fact, be established between teaching strategies and learner outcomes, and that, to the extent that those regularities are established to be valid and reliable, the task of teachers is to employ those strategies in the course of their daily work.

The teacher as applied scientist is perhaps most closely associated with the teacher effectiveness research of such scholars as Brophy, Doyle, Good, Rosenshine, Stallings, Gage, B. O. Smith, and Resnick to name just a few. While the critics of the applied science metaphor seem to suggest that its proponents hold a very narrow empiricist view, the title of Gage's important little book, *The Scientific Basis of the Art of Teaching*, suggests the more modest postures that are, in fact, held.

There are, once again, implications of this particular guiding image for teacher selection, preparation, and practice. If teaching is understood as applied science, then those selected for preparation must be those with the intellectual capacity to understand the science.

Teacher preparation must be keyed to the research base on teaching effectiveness and must be carried out in clinical sites that are themselves conducted according to the understandings derived from that research.

Conditions of practice within schools must be characterized by continuous inservice on the developing empirical knowledge base in teaching effectiveness. School administrators must be knowledgeable about the teacher effectiveness research and be prepared to support teachers with the provision of teaching materials, equipment, and mixtures of students as suggested by research evidence. Practice is likely to be more highly systematized and to be teaching oriented, yet keyed tightly to the ongoing measurement of student outcomes.

### Teacher as Decision Maker

A fourth image of teaching focuses on its decision-making functions and responsibilities. Two proponents of this view, David Berliner and Arthur Bolster, offer different dimensions. Berliner asks us to focus on the "executive" functions: teacher planning, communicating goals, regulating activities, creating pleasant environments, educating new members of the work group, articulating the work of the specific site with others in the system, supervising and working with other people, motivating those being supervised, and evaluating the performance of those supervised (Berliner, 1985).

Arthur Bolster, focusing on the structure of the teaching environment, points to the requirement "that teachers function consistently as *situational decisionmakers*" (Bolster, 1983, p. 296). Competent teachers, says Bolster, "make an amazing number of decisions based on predictions about the probable effect of their actions on students' task accomplishment. When teachers are planning, these predictions are anticipatory and based largely on beliefs acquired from previous experience. In classroom sessions, the predictions are made more existentially through a process of giving and receiving cues" (Bolster, 1983, p. 296).

The implications for selection into teaching on the decision-making image lead to a focus on intellectual capacity for the range of decisions, the emotional strength to make them, a high autonomy index coupled with a deep sense of personal responsibility, and the performance capacity to carry out the decisions taken.

Teacher preparation would focus on the development of an understanding of the teaching role in its decision contexts, academic preparation keyed to the full range of decision frames, clinical training that is reflective and analytical, and an emphasis not so much on "modeling" as on higher order cognitive processes.

The conditions of practice required to support a decision-making image would include teacher autonomy to match the responsibility implicit in the decisions required. Teaching would be learning oriented and require easy access to good information. Good decision making requires opportunities to get good advice and to share diverse perspectives. Considerable flexibility in matters pertaining to curriculum and instruction would be necessary. In short, teachers would need to be well supported in their decision-making duties and responsibilities.

## THE RESULT OF IMAGE CONFUSION? PROFESSIONAL UNCERTAINTY

A great deal of the confusion and conflict over teaching and teacher preparation arises out of implicit or explicit conflict in the images that practitioners, policy figures, and teacher educators have of what they mean by "teacher." We cannot focus on what needs to be done because we suffer from multiple visions of reality and of the future. We either do not make them clear, cannot, or will not. Until we do, we will be in trouble, because we will be unable to adopt a common vision that will enable us to proceed.

Harry Judge's recent analysis, *American Graduate Schools of Education: A View from Abroad* (1982), insightfully illustrates these and other dimensions of the problem. He shows how the particular academic orientations of the researchers in these graduate schools lead them away from practitioner concerns and understandings, a point that Bolster reinforces very strongly. Furthermore, Judge demonstrates how the graduate research orientation in schools of education—because of the undergraduate character of teacher preparation itself—effectively removes researchers and scholars from the reflective and deliberative tasks of teacher education per se.

I would add my own question to Bolster's and Judge's insights: Why is it that we understand that the graduates of law schools are all attorneys, the graduates of medical schools all physicians, and the graduates of engineering schools all engineers regardless of their particular specialties? Colleges of education do not graduate educators in our or anyone else's eyes; we graduate teachers, administrators, counselors, school psychologists, reading supervisors, foundation scholars, and so on. No coherent theme binds us together. No common image provides the glue. We are not one profession.

The four images, however incompletely, imprecisely, and sketchily drawn herein are alive and well in the minds of teachers, policymakers, and teacher educators. But I would urge a choice among them, a choice that is justified by what we know about teaching and by what ought to be the most appropriate and best image of "teacher."

Donna Kerr (1981) argues that belief and commitment are crucial to the role of teacher. She stresses that our "beliefs and values must be organized as to make them readily available in making judgments and in performances" (p. 89). I could tie this recommendation to Alan Tom's analysis, too, for the image I would recommend is a value statement, a clear preference based on the complex nature of the responsibilities and the moral duties of teachers serving a free society.

The choice I would urge is to see teachers as decision makers. Teachers are required, hourly, to make serious value choices. They serve both individuals and society. They work in institutions where real power differentials exist. Their learning and teaching responsibilities are increasingly supported by an empirical research tradition requiring highly situational interpretation.

The choice is based on empirical data (I would argue its faithfulness to what good teachers actually *do*) and it is clearly an intentional act; that is, it is designed to bring about a situation more in tune with what we as a nation ought to expect of teachers. It is a choice that would establish the conceptual hub on the basis of which all the other spokes of professional role—principals, superintendents, school psychologists, counselors, and other specialist roles—could come to be defined.

## IMPLICATIONS

I would like to explore three implications of the recommendation I have made. The first has to do with the knowledge a decision-maker image would require teachers to acquire. The second focuses on preparation models and approaches. The third implication has to do with selection criteria for teachers. I end with a broad conclusion based on the attention given to the three implications.

### Required Knowledge for Teachers

Conceiving of the teacher's role in terms of the complex and weighty decisions teachers are called upon to make establishes a vital frame of reference for addressing the knowledge qualifications of teachers.

First, let us take a look at the kinds of decisions teachers are called upon to make. A partial listing includes:

Curriculum content
Motivation of students
Student placement
Instructional process
Evaluation approach
Management of student behavior
Professional obligations
Modes of professional collaboration
Diagnostic strategies
Strategies upon reaching the limits of one's knowledge
Management of academic learning time
Articulation with other parts of the school and school system

Decisions of these kinds have technical dimensions but their boundaries go considerably beyond the technical level. Some of them relate more closely to the narrower confines of the classroom per se, while others clearly stand juxtaposed to much larger value and purpose frameworks.

Accordingly, the knowledge required and the sources of that knowledge are both substantial and varied. In other places I have sketched out my views of the pluralistic bases for the knowledge teachers require—empirical, logical, experiential, political, ethical, normative, aesthetic, etc.—and their four major domains—a liberal education, mastery of the content areas to be taught, intellectual underpinnings of the profession, and professional knowledge (Gideonse, 1983, Chapters 1 and 6). In the final analysis, those several domains, of course, are not neatly separable from one another. Nonetheless, they constitute grounds on the basis of which practicing teachers make highly situational decisions keyed to the emergent circumstances of teaching and learning in the schools of America.

This conception of teaching is both analytic and intellectual. It presumes the application of sophisticated intelligence. It assumes a capacity for reflection and thoughtfulness. It comes close, for instance, to a conception advanced by Anthony Hartnet and Michael Naish in their stimulating discussion of moral and political issues in the education of teachers, which they conclude with an exposition of what they call the "critical perspective," one that

> lays emphasis on the moral and empirical complexities of educational practice, on the importance of the tacit elements in complex human activities, and the importance of knowing how little is known (1980, pp. 267–268).*

## Preparation Models

If teaching depends on intellect and analytic capacity what, then, is to be made of the tremendous emphasis teacher education has placed on field experience and practica? Why do we talk so much about apprenticeship models in the training of teachers? How should we understand our students' own enthusiasm for their practice teaching experience in the light of empirical evidence that suggests that the net effect of these experiences is to produce premature closure on and less-than-reflective application of lower-level instructional strategies?

A decision-making image of teaching would suggest a rather different frame of reference for thinking about such matters. In discussions within teacher education circles one can often hear references to the terms "apprenticeship," "field-based," and "clinical." How should we understand such terminology in the light of the decision-making image?

The concept of apprenticeship has a long and interesting history. Apprenticeship has been the choice preparation model for crafts where behavioral models—watching masters perform the skills—and great amounts of closely supervised practice in the performance of those skills clearly worked.

The concept of close supervision was essential. English reform legislation pertaining to apprenticeship, for example, provided that any master with three apprentices also had to employ a journeyman. What is of interest here from a preparation perspective is not the protection of journeymen against the exploitation of apprentices, but the small number of apprentices that triggered the protectionist requirement. Anyone advocating apprenticeship models applied to the preparation of teachers who would sanction anything more than a three or four to one ratio of clinical supervisor to student teachers on an FTE basis (that is, one fulltime supervisor for each three to four student teachers) either does not understand apprenticeship as a concept or is guilty of hopeless inconsistency. Of course we do not even come close to such figures. States like my own, which have launched significant reforms in teacher education, have felt lucky to be able to define and pay for 14:1 ratios for clinical and field activities.

Let us look at a real apprenticeship program. I would guess it will come as a surprise to many (as it did to me) that electricians in apprenticeship programs in Cincinnati spend more hours (660 as compared to 510) in class instruction than University of Cincinnati secondary education students do in the didactic portion of their secondary professional training program, which is half again as extensive as the average program nationally. Furthermore, the apprentice electricians spend a full 8000 clinical hours under the direct supervision of journeymen electricians, nearly 27 times the equivalent clinical experience in student teaching! Moreover, no journeyman may ever assume responsibility for more than a single apprentice. The ratio never exceeds 1:1! Such analytical comparisons may not be wholly fair. But they are certainly provocative! In a sense, then, we have been kidding ourselves by veiling our discussions of teacher preparation in language whose full import we would not dream or could not hope to realize.

More important, from the decision-making perspective, we would have seriously to reconsider the appropriateness of our clinical training on other grounds. If teaching has the character suggested by the image, watching it being done by others and shaping one's own behavior accordingly would have to be recognized as hopelessly inadequate.

Clinical experiences on this model would need to be understood to be of value *only* if there were full opportunity to explore the elements and underpinning rationales for teacher intent, planning, situation sensing, plan modification, performance, evaluation, and evolving conceptualization of the composite teaching activity, and *then* opportunities for self-trial under carefully controlled circumstances. Such an understanding of the route to preparation involves much more than total immersion, trial and error, or observation. It requires intensive, reflective, analytical interaction between teacher and intern. If any of this makes sense, then very serious re-thinking of the clinical sites, of the nature of the interactions between practitioners, faculty, and students, and of the instructional, clinical, and mediating resources needs to be undertaken.

### Selection into Teaching

There are, of course, two crucial points of entry into teaching. The first is entry into teacher preparation; the second into employment. It should be readily apparent that the decision-making image of teacher has powerful implications for the qualities and qualifications of those entering for training or for practice in the profession.

The image suggests the importance of breadth and depth of preparation, of intellectual agility, of moral clarity and purposiveness, and of substantial courage. I have no doubt and considerable evidence that the more reflective teacher education programs now add far more to our students' potential as teachers and are far more effective screens than has been evidenced in the programs of the past. Still, for a variety of reasons, we are all deeply concerned that the attractiveness of the profession to persons who have the qualifications and qualities outlined above seems to be drastically diminishing.

## SUMMARY

I have no doubts about what the profession of teaching can become. The limits of our power *and* professional feasibility are, in fact, far beyond the level of current performance and practice. What kinds of breakthroughs are required?

Two are vitally important: The first relates to the level of our own conviction to move forward. That desire will find expression only through our willingness to define and implement incentives to recruit, train, induct, and retain highly able people in teaching. Second, those who govern public education must exercise their power to insist that what is known about teaching, teacher education, and the requisites of effective schools be applied, as appropriate, by those who are responsible for selecting trainees and preparing them and those who select teachers and operate schools.

The conditions of practice, therefore, are the place to look first if the image recommended here is ever to be fully realized. Those conditions include salaries, career paths within teaching, the design of schools that reflect the requirements of collaborative professional practice, and workloads and other related conditions that clearly express the intellectual and humane purposes for which schools ought to exist.

## REFERENCE NOTES

*At first glance, that might seem contradictory to the earlier claim that a great deal needs to be known and, indeed, can be. The contradiction is more apparent than real: much can and needs to be known, but the specifics of the moment have a peculiar way of defying being known and, therefore, intentionality (read "decisions and action") looms large.

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